EDUCATIONAL NEWS AND EDITORIAL COMMENT

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A STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRESS

THE concept of evaluation—the use of tests and other evidence to determine the extent to which the objectives of a school are being attained—has become increasingly important in the field of education. Usually, however, evaluation techniques have been applied to only a limited phase of the curriculum or school program and tend to ignore educational objectives which are common to many parts of the program. Such evaluation studies do not reveal the points at which the educational objectives of various parts of the school program are in conflict, nor do they reveal the combined effect of various courses and educational experiences in producing important outcomes.

A study intended to evaluate the over-all effects of a general-education program is the "Study of Educational Progress" which is described by R. W. Gerard in the January, 1948, issue of the *Journal of Higher Education*. Dr.

Gerard reports on the planning of the program for evaluating the curriculum of the College of the University of Chicago, the nature of the administrative and technical group which is carrying out the study, and the techniques being used to secure the evaluation data.

Student opinion is being determined through the use of questionnaire techniques. So far, questionnaire studies have been made on the social life of the students, on various offices and services in the school, and on specific courses. In each case the student is given an opportunity to react to the purposes, the functions, and the methods employed on the part of the school being studied.

Case-study techniques are employed to investigate the background of students and to gather evidence on the ways in which they change socially and emotionally. The case studies are made for a limited but carefully selected sample of students.

Interviewing techniques have been developed to study the methods of thinking habitually used by students. Evidence is being assembled on the extent to which students deal effectively with the problems that they encounter, the extent to which they make use of various information and the sources of the information, the kinds of authority that they respect, the assumptions that they recognize, the extent to which prejudice and emotion influence their final decisions, and the kinds of considerations used in making decisions. The interview data are quantified by the use of rating scales.

Achievement tests have been constructed to measure changes in the student's knowledge, intellectual abilities, and skills. The tests are administered at the time the student enters the eleventh year of school and are repeated at two-year intervals thereafter. It is planned to make follow-up studies of various groups of students, including those who drop out of school at various points.

One of the findings of the test results is that the students who make initial progress on certain of the intellectual abilities and skills in connection with the study of a particular course continue to show improvement in these characteristics after relevant formal training has ceased. This is probably the result of the habitual use of the abilities and skills. The importance of informal out-of-school educational experiences is demonstrated by the substantial gains on some of the

tests made by occasional students who did not have formal training relevant to the particular objectives being measured. The study has revealed that, in the case of a number of educational objectives considered to be important by the schools involved, students show little or no appreciable change. It has also found some objectives in which students make unusually large gains during a two-year period.

This type of study serves to focus faculty discussions on important educational problems. The availability of the kinds of data indicated above directs the attention of teachers to the analysis of their educational plans and techniques. Such data may also be used as a basis for counseling students. The reports of the initial and the retest scores serve to motivate students to seek methods of improving in those areas in which progress has been most limited.

PROBLEM-SOLVING REMEDIATION

IN OUR teaching and testing, we give greatest emphasis to the products of thought—the answers and solutions that students give to the problems presented to them. Little attention is given to the processes of thought—the ways in which students think about problems, the considerations used to make one choice rather than another, and the feelings and emotions which accompany an attack on a problem. Although, in practice, the emphasis is on the products of thought, there is little doubt that most teachers regard

the development of sound habits of thinking as an important objective of education. We place so much stress on the products of thought because they are easier to observe, because we believe that they are good indices of the kinds of thinking being done, and because we have so little time in which to study the processes of thinking of our students.

Although we may be unable to justify use of the time and energy required to study the processes of thinking of all students, it would be desirable to make such investigations for atypical students. There is some evidence that attempts to change the habits of thinking of failing students can be quite successful and that such changes are reflected in improved products, as measured by examination scores.

In an unpublished Master's thesis ("Experimental Studies in Problem-solving of College Students," Department of Psychology, University of Chicago, 1946), Lois Jean Broder describes an experimental technique for improving the processes of thinking, and consequently the products, of failing students. This study, which involved more than sixty students, showed the technique to be very effective in bringing a high proportion of the students up to an acceptable level of academic performance.

Since Miss Broder was attempting to study mental processes rather than products, it was necessary to secure some criteria of what constituted good or desirable kinds of thinking. For this purpose she interviewed a number of students who consistently received marks of A or B on the comprehensive or other examinations taken during their career in the College of the University of Chicago. She presented these students with selected problems from the various tests and had them "think aloud" as they attacked these problems. A careful and complete record was made of the kinds of thinking revealed in this situation. These she considered to be the "model" methods of attacking the examination problems.

The failing students were then interviewed under similar conditions. The records of the problem-solving of the failing students and the successful students were compared for the major differences in the methods of attack. These differences were classified under four major headings: understanding the nature of the problem, understanding the ideas contained in the problem, general approach to the solution of problems, and attitudes involved in the problem-solving.

Understanding the nature of the problem.—The "model" students appeared to have a much better definition of the problems that they were to attack than had the failing students. The former were able to find a point at which to start attacking the problem and had little difficulty in determining just what the problem was all about. In contrast, the unsuccessful students frequently misunderstood the directions for the problem or quickly forgot what they were expect-

ed to do. Frequently the unsuccessful students so altered the problem as to make it completely different from the problem originally posed. In many instances the unsuccessful students' difficulties arose from careless reading.

Understanding the ideas contained in the problem.—A major difference between the two groups was found in the ability to bring relevant knowledge to bear on the problem. Although it was quite clear in many cases that the unsuccessful students had all the information necessary for solving the problem, they appeared to be unable to use the information effectively. Many of the unsuccessful students were apparently unable to understand and attack a problem unless it was presented in a form similar to that in which they had originally encountered the material in textbooks, lectures, and discussions.

General approach to the solution of problems.—The major difference in this area was a very active and systematic attack on the problem by the model students as contrasted with what seemed to be an almost aimless drifting through the problem by the failing students. The latter group had little control over the problem, and they were often unable to attack it directly or to break large problems into subproblems which could be attacked separately. Frequently the failing students mechanically re-read the problem many times until something struck a familiar note.

The failing students appeared to solve problems on the basis of impressions and feelings about which solutions were correct. They selected answers and then tried to justify them. All too frequently the justification had little or no relevance to the solution that they had chosen. The groups also differed in attention to important details, the failing students being relatively careless.

Attitudes involved in the problem-solving.—Many of the unsuccessful students took the attitude that either one "knows" the answer to a problem at once or that nothing can be done about it. That is, they did not believe that reasoning or extensive working with a problem was of any value. If a problem looked to be at all complex or difficult, they gave up quickly. Again, there was a difference between the two groups in the frequency with which they introduced personal considerations into their problem-solving. The unsuccessful students had difficulty in attacking problems with any degree of objectivity and persisted in selecting solutions which agreed with their own values and desires rather than those which satisfied the conditions set by the problem.

After the records on the problem-solving of the successful or "model" students and the failing students had been obtained, Miss Broder gave each of the failing students an opportunity to diagnose his major sources of difficulty. She presented the problems to the student and then read the record of the "model" attack and the student's own attack on the same problem. The student was asked to note

differences between the two approaches. At first, she encountered some resistance at this point, since the failing students tended to be on the defensive and seemed to be unwilling or unable to recognize the differences which appeared. As the session proceeded, the students seemed to acquire greater objectivity and skill in noting characteristic differences in the attacks on problems. Each student then made a list of the major ways in which his problem-solving differed from the "model" methods. This list was examined to find what appeared to be the principal sources of difficulty.

The students then attempted to overcome these difficulties. They practiced different ways of attacking new problems on their own and under the guidance of Miss Broder. In so far as possible, the burden of diagnosing difficulties and of determining when they were being remedied was placed on the student. However, the students gave clear evidence of improvement in recognizing their major difficulties and of remedying them. In a follow-up study of these students, it was found that they made significant increases in their examination performance. Most of the students were able to do acceptable academic work in subjects in which they had originally failed. Instructors and advisors reported desirable changes in the behavior and classroom performance of these students.

This study demonstrates that some failing students can be greatly aided through the spending of a relatively limited amount of time and effort on the improvement of their methods of problem-solving. It also indicates a likelihood that our teaching techniques are remiss in placing primary emphasis on the accuracy of the solutions that students give to problems rather than on the kinds of thinking that they do in connection with these problems.

A COURSE IN GREAT ISSUES

IN THE May 15, 1948, issue of *Higher Education*, Arthur M. Wilson reports on "Dartmouth's Venture in 'Great Issues.'" This is a course in citizenship, directed by President John S. Dickey, which is required of all Seniors at Dartmouth College. At the first of each of the three weekly sessions, a faculty member summarizes the background of an issue, a guest lecturer speaks at the second session, while the third session is devoted to questions and answers and some class discussion.

This course was in the middle of its second semester at the time Wilson wrote his article. The course began with a study of modern man's political loyalties, in which the guest lecturers included Archibald MacLeish, Alexander Meiklejohn, and Lewis Mumford. Atomic energy and proposals for its control were treated by President J. B. Conant and E. U. Condon. Other topics have been the international and American aspects of world peace, the individual's adjustment to society, the arts and human values, problems of faith and religion, and the public duties of an educated man.

Students are expected to keep abreast of current events by daily reading of either the *New York Times* or the *New York Herald Tribune*. In addition to particular magazine articles and books, the students are expected to read selected pages from the *Congressional Record*, Supreme Court decisions, and such documents as the Acheson-Lilienthal Report on the International Control of Atomic Energy and the Report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights.

ANOTHER GADGET

No one should be more fearful of gadgets than the educator. He knows all too well the dangers presented by gadgets in diverting him from concern about ends to concern about means. Gadgets are so fascinating that most individuals find themselves putting a great deal of time and energy into their use and maintenance and are consequently diverted from more substantial and fundamental enterprises.

Thus it is with some trepidation that one mentions anything about such gadgets as wire, tape, film, or other recording devices. However, these have been developed to a point where an economical recording may be made under relatively trouble-free conditions. These features make them very useful as "mirrors" of classroom activities.

There has long been a need for a faithful record or mirror of classroom activities which may be studied and restudied at will. It is true that the re-

sults of tests, student comments and behavior, and observers' reactions serve this purpose in part, but in each case so many other factors enter the picture as to reduce considerably the accuracy of the record.

In a recent study at the University of Chicago, five college instructors used a wire recorder to analyze their discussion classes. This group regarded a discussion as an exchange of ideas about a limited topic or problem among the members of a group. In contrast, the lecture is a situation in which the instructor presents ideas to a group of students, while a group conversation involves little more than a collection of individuals conversing about anything and everything that strikes their fancy. These instructors were interested in learning as much as they could about their discussion classes.

It should be noted that in each of the classes the microphone was placed on a table in full view of the students, who were given a brief explanation of the purpose of the recording. At first, the students were obviously conscious of the recording apparatus. Some hesitated to talk, while others put on their best "broadcast" manner. As the discussion proceeded, most of the students seemed to forget all about the recorder and occupied themselves with the issues at hand. Recordings were made over a period of a year at any time the instructor thought important.

Merely listening to the recordings proved to be a very stimulating experi-

ence to the instructors. Although some of them had been teaching for as long as ten to fifteen years, they had never been confronted with an objective and accurate record of what happened in their classrooms. They expressed amazement at the sound of their own voices and were surprised at the ways in which they asked some questions and answered others. They found many places at which they would have proceeded differently if given a second opportunity, and they had difficulty in determining why they had not done certain things when a particular situation arose. They all regarded this as an instructive experience and, after the initial embarrassment, proceeded to plan ways of improving their discussions.

A second stage in the use of the recordings was to proceed systematically to summarize and describe what went on in the classroom. For this purpose it was necessary to make a written transcription of the sound record. One simple analysis was to determine who participates in class discussion and to what extent. A frequency count of individual participation revealed the extent to which the instructor or one or more of the students dominated the discussion time. Other analyses revealed the different roles assumed by the students in the discussion (the interrogator, the explainer, the summarizer, the critic, etc.), the structure of the discussion, the relationship between parts of the discussion, and the ways in which various contributions fitted into an over-all pattern.

A third level of analysis was to determine the interrelationship among various elements in a discussion and to study the effects of specific arrangements and activities. An attempt was made to answer some of the following questions:

Do the physical arrangements of a classroom affect the nature of the discussion? That is, if students are arranged in phalanxes, will the discussion be different from the discussion which takes place if they are seated around a table?

What effect does the instructor's rephrasing of a question have on the contributions of students?

What is the effect of frequent or infrequent summarizing during the discussion?

What effect does the student who monopolizes a discussion have on the kind and extent of participation of other students?

What techniques of discussion-leading are most effective in holding a discussion to a limited topic?

What techniques of discussion-leading result in a "stream-of-consciousness" development of ideas?

What is the effect of abstract versus concrete questions, questions directed at individuals versus questions directed at the group as a whole?

A fourth type of analysis was directed to evaluation. To what extent did a discussion achieve the educational purposes desired? Here the instructor attempted to relate the purposes that he planned to achieve in a given series of discussions with the evidence obtained in the transcript.

All these types of analyses serve to make the instructor conscious of the things that he and the students do in a discussion and also serve to make him aware of the various considera-

tions involved in planning, directing, and improving discussions.

TIME IN SCHOOL

IN AN article, "Student Hours in School vs. Out of School," appearing in the Spring, 1948, issue of the *Harvard Educational Review*, R. J. Maaske estimates that about 84 per cent of the waking time of the growing child's life between birth and the age of eighteen is spent out of school. Since this time is spent under the direct influence of home and community factors, Maaske concludes that there must be a greater awareness of the important role which the home and the community play in the education of youth. He believes that we need a clearer understanding of the objectives of home and parental training and how this training may be more closely integrated with the programs of the elementary and the high school.

Since less than a sixth of the high-school graduate's time was spent under its direct influences, the school must recognize that the work done in this limited time can be rendered almost ineffective by the other important influences acting on the student during the remaining portion of his waking hours. Maaske's article again points up the difficulty that a school encounters when it attempts to achieve, single-handedly, such a broad objective as the development of a well-rounded person and citizen.

AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK, 1948

THE twenty-eighth annual observance of American Education Week has been announced for November 7–13. In accord with the usual practice, the sponsoring agencies have prepared suggestions and special helps for teachers and community organizations planning programs and projects for presentation during the week through activities within the schools, newspaper features, movies, radio programs, community group meetings, and exhibits. A descriptive list of these special helps may be obtained from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

A statement of the plan and purposes of the program for this year, prepared by Agnes Samuelson, assistant editor of the *Journal of the National Education Association*, includes points of information or interest to teachers and other community leaders:

The over-all emphasis of American Education Week this year is upon the role of education in "Strengthening the Foundations of Freedom." The daily topics gear into this theme by pointing up critical areas in which speedy advances must be made if schools and colleges are to be equipped in terms of the size of their tasks.

The 1948 program is the twenty-eighth observance of American Education Week. This celebration is held in November beginning on Sunday of the week which includes Armistice Day. It is sponsored by three great national organizations with over nine million members: the National Education Association, American Legion, National Con-

gress of Parents and Teachers; and the United States Office of Education, which may be said to represent schools and colleges. Canada is usually represented at the sponsors' meeting to select the general theme and daily topics. The American College Public Relations Association is urging active participation by the higher institutions of learning.

While the problems facing the schools are continuous, the values of American Education Week for focusing the attention of the nation upon them are enormous. American Education Week is a good time to review the place of education in the lives of the children and the security of the republic, appraise current programs in the light of new needs and conditions, and plan new lines of action. If every school and college participates effectively, significant results can be expected during the entire year.

American Education Week is distinguished by two types of activities: school visitation and educational interpretation. The one brings the people to the schools; the other brings the schools to the people. Over ten million people visit the schools during the observance. Millions of others are reached through radio, press, exhibits, movies, meetings, and other ways. American Education Week has come to be the outstanding period of the school year for highlighting education and arousing citizen interest in improvement programs.

ATOMIC VISION

WITH the view of promoting a better understanding of "the great promise and the great hazards in atomic energy," the Committee on Curriculum Planning and Development of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals initiated and planned a teaching-learning unit for high-school students. This material has been published by the Association in an attractively illustrated pamphlet entitled *Operation Atomic Vision*. The 95-page pamphlet is priced at 60 cents per copy, with discounts from 10 to $33\frac{1}{3}$ per cent on quantity orders. It may be procured through the office of the Association, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

The preparation of the text of the unit is credited to Professors Hubert M. Evans, Department of Teaching of Natural Sciences, and Ryland W. Crary, Department of Teaching of Social Sciences, both at Teachers College, Columbia University, and C. Glen Hass of the Denver public schools. In the preparation of the unit, the authors and the Association's committee had the assistance of an advisory committee composed of representatives of the United States Atomic Energy Commission, the National Committee on Atomic Information, and a number of national educational organizations.

The unit deals both with the science of atomic energy, providing authoritative information on the nature of atomic power and an explanation of its constructive and destructive uses, and with the recognized problems of domestic and international control of such power as related to the peacetime applications of atomic energy as well as to the consequences of atomic warfare. One section of the unit is devoted to the consideration of ways in which the several high schools of a city or county might plan a joint enterprise to arouse interest in the development

of public understanding of the impli-
cations of atomic power.

COLLEGE-BY-RADIO EXPERIMENT
INITIATED

THE National Broadcasting Com-
pany announced on June 14 that
plans were being promoted for the
launching of a vast adult-education
project involving the use of the NBC
system of affiliated stations and a
number of the leading colleges and uni-
versities of the nation. Arrangements
had previously been completed for an
experimental program centering in
the University of Louisville, in which
radio broadcasts would be combined
with selected correspondence courses
offered by the University. The test
program at the University of Louis-
ville was initiated on July 7, 1948.

According to the NBC announce-
ment, institutions of higher learning
are being invited to co-operate with
the network in offering home-study
courses built around network-pro-
duced programs, in giving supplemen-
tary guidance broadcasts by local
broadcasting stations, and in assign-
ing readings. The "college-by-radio"
series of courses will embrace out-
standing programs maintained by the
network in the fields of education and
public affairs, such as "World's Great
Novels," "University of Chicago
Round Table," "America United,"
"Doctors Today," and "Orchestras of
the Nation." It is expected that other
series in science, history, government,
and homemaking will be added. Lis-
teners will be able to register for a

course in current events, music, litera-
ture, or other offerings of a participat-
ing educational institution at a nomi-
nal fee. Two kinds of certificates
will be provided for satisfactory com-
pletion of a course: one for enrollees
not interested in college credit or not
qualified to seek credit, another for
those who meet the prescribed condi-
tions for institutional credit.

Sterling W. Fisher, manager of the
NBC Public Affairs and Education
Department, offered the following
statement in explanation of the rea-
sons for launching the project:

There has never been a time when our
citizens were as eager as they are now to in-
crease their education with respect to the
world at large, in order that they may act as
more intelligent citizens of a democracy.
However, approximately half of our 85,000,-
000 adults have not completed high school,
and about 25 per cent have not completed
Grade VIII. Despite progress in adult edu-
cation in recent years, the great majority of
these tens of millions of responsible adult
citizens at present have no means for con-
tinuing their education through formally or-
ganized classes. It is to bridge this gap that
NBC is undertaking the college-by-radio ex-
periment.

Without diminishing a bit the general ap-
peal of the programs, we believe the network
can immeasurably increase the value of the
programming it does in the field of education
and public affairs by providing ways for lis-
teners to make use of broadcasts.

The interest of the colleges and uni-
versities in the possibilities of such
ready extension of institutional serv-
ices to populations far in excess of the
capacity of available plant and per-
sonnel required for regular classroom
teaching is voiced in the declaration

of President John W. Taylor, of the University of Louisville, as follows:

This experiment holds the possibility of success, so far as educating our citizens is concerned, to a degree hitherto undreamed of. Should it prove a success, it would not be fantastic were institutions working on this plan to have enrolments running into the millions.

BROADENING THE FIGHT ON POLIO

IN THE July 18 issue of the *New York Times*, Howard A. Rusk, M.D., describes the first International Poliomyelitis Conference which was held in New York City in July. World-wide interest in the need for concerted action against the spreading incidence of the disease among the nations is evidenced by the report of the presence at this conference of a thousand delegates representing thirty-eight nations. The International Conference was sponsored by our own National Foundation for Infantile Paralysis, whose annual appeal for nation-wide assistance has received the support of school children throughout the country since its inception ten years ago. One of the features of the conference, as reported by Dr. Rusk, was the address by Basil O'Connor, president of the American foundation, describing the expanding services of the foundation and its accomplishments of the past ten years. The factual information of particular interest to participants in the annual campaign of the "March of Dimes" is summarized in the following excerpts from the report appearing in the *New York Times:*

In 1938 only about 300 hospitals in the nation accepted poliomyelitis cases; today there are well over 700, many of which have been aided by the foundation with special staff and equipment to meet the needs of the poliomyelitis patient.

Since 1938, 1,500 physicians, therapists, nurses, medical social workers, and other infantile paralysis specialists have received training through scholarships and fellowships at a cost of $6,000,000. The $1,500,000 which the foundation has spent on training physical therapists alone has increased the nation's supply of such therapists by 25 per cent. Hundreds of other physicians, nurses, and therapists have received short courses in the early diagnosis and management of the disease. . . .

Since 1938 the foundation has established a network of emergency treatment centers, epidemic aid units, and equipment depots so that professional personnel and equipment can be rushed to the epidemic areas. During the 1946 epidemic 2,500 nurses and hundreds of physical therapists were recruited for emergency duty, their salaries paid by the foundation. Within the last few weeks more than 100 nurses and 60 iron lungs have been sent to North Carolina, where 124 new cases were reported within four days [in a week in July, 1948].

Since 1938 an estimated 88,000 of the 112,000 children and adults who have developed infantile paralysis have received direct financial assistance for medial care from the local chapters of the foundation at a cost of $35,000,000. The percentage of crippling has been markedly decreased as a result of such early care and prompt treatment.

Also since 1938 the foundation has made 645 grants, totaling $14,000,000, for scientific research and education. Although the answer to the complex riddle of poliomyelitis has not yet been found, the by-products of this research have provided valuable clues and aids in the prevention and management of other diseases and a great many basic facts for further research in infantile paralysis.

EXPERIMENTAL PROGRAM IN AVIATION EDUCATION

ACCORDING to a recent announcement by D. W. Rentzel, administrator of Civil Aeronautics, arrangements have been made for a laboratory study of the best methods of instruction for classes in aviation education. The study is sponsored by the Civil Aeronautics Administration and the American Council on Education.

During the current school year, selected teachers in twenty-six school systems will participate in the experiment, the general procedures for which were developed during a demonstration project conducted in Washington this summer under the direction of H. W. Sinclair, director of aviation training for the Civil Aeronautics Administration. It is proposed to assemble the results of the study in booklet form, suitable for use as a teacher's manual, and to make these available to all teachers who incorporate aviation materials into their courses. The procedures and purposes of the project, as explained by Mr. Rentzel, are as follows:

> In each of the twenty-six school systems at least two teachers will contribute and report at regular intervals during the school year to the C.A.A. Aviation Education Division on ways of making aviation a harmonious part of the whole public-school pattern. Reports of the contributing teachers will be appraised, and those methods which have proved successful in actual use will later be assembled in booklet form for use by any school system interested. . . .
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> The main purposes of the project are (1) to discover worth-while aviation-education materials presently available, (2) to appraise such materials in the light of instructional needs, (3) to evaluate and interpret for classroom use the reports of recent and current events resulting because of aviation, (4) to determine the best method of incorporating such materials into the subject matter of different instructional situations. The Aviation Education Division will assist by providing digests of recent and current reports concerning the developments of aircraft, aviation, and the uses of aviation, classified as these relate to the several curricular areas.

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF FOREST MATERIALS

THE American Forest Products Industries offers to furnish for teachers' use the newly prepared "School Bibliography on Forests." This bibliography describes and illustrates forestry materials, with emphasis on conservation, which are appropriate for courses in English, history, geography, physics, and chemistry. Items included describe the principal commercial trees, telling where they grow and how they may be protected from fire. Others explain how insects and disease affect trees or describe ways in which wood contributes to our better living.

Available also is a teacher's manual containing suggestions about the use of these materials in the classroom. Copies of the bibliography and the manual may be obtained without charge from the American Forest Products Industries, Inc., 1319 Eighteenth Street, N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

BENJAMIN S. BLOOM

WHO'S WHO FOR OCTOBER

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by BENJAMIN S. BLOOM, assistant professor of education and College examiner at the University of Chicago. LESTER A. KIRKENDALL, formerly director of the Association for Family Living, Chicago, Illinois, and at present program specialist in family-life education at the University of Illinois Y.M.C.A., Champaign, Illinois, gives consideration to emerging concepts in family-life education. PERCIVAL M. SYMONDS, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, reports the validation, through case studies, of a personality survey which was conducted at the James Otis Junior High School in New York City. MILTON J. COHLER, principal of Waller High School, Chicago, Illinois, discusses the problem of discipline in the school and makes suggestions on how to handle it. MYRON MOSKOWITZ, education counselor in Mission High School, San Francisco, California, considers the problem of teaching the slow-learning child. LOUISE TUCKER MACKENZIE, instructor of home economics in the University High School of the University of Minnesota, explains how group action, attained through a unified arts course, assists in the personality development of pupils in Grades VII, VIII, and IX. GORDON N. MACKENZIE, professor of education at Teachers College, Columbia University, and E. GORDON McDOWELL, a member of the staff of La Sierra College, Arlington, California, present a list of selected references on the organization of secondary education.

Reviewers of books ELEANOR VOLBERDING, associate professor of elementary education and intermediate supervisor in Stewart Training School at the University of Utah. KEITH KAVANAUGH, teacher of English in Rossville High School, Rossville, Illinois. NELSON B. HENRY, professor of education at the University of Chicago.

EMERGING CONCEPTS IN FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION[1]

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THE BACKGROUND

THE importance of education for family living has long been recognized. In 1918 the National Education Association listed "worthy home membership" as one of the seven cardinal principles of education. For a number of years educational activities looking toward the accomplishment of this objective were vague and, for the most part, represented pious wishes rather than concrete accomplishments. The chief concern of early programs was the adjustment of the child to his current home situation. However, mounting evidence of deteriorating family life has gradually brought both educators and the public to a sharp awareness that programs of education for family living must be strengthened and broadened. This growing interest was dramatized by the appearance of three volumes on education for family living,[2] each written for a prominent educational group and all published in 1941. These three volumes, when examined in light of best 1948 practices, laid heavy emphasis on adjustment to the current home situation and on a broad generalized approach.

A few schools have had well-organized programs of family-life education, and most schools have touched on the subject through casual references to family life at certain points in the curriculum or, possibly, through a unit incorporated in some subject. The most systematic approach to family living has been made through home-economics departments. The earlier home-economics courses centered in home management, though in hundreds of schools they have now been broadened to emphasize various psychological aspects of family living.

The past few years have witnessed a

[1] An address given on July 15, 1948, at the Seventeenth Annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools. The complete proceedings will be published by the University of Chicago Press.

[2] *a*) *Education for Family Life.* Nineteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1941.

b) Joseph K. Folsom, with sections by Winifred E. Bain and Ellen Miller, *Youth, Family, and Education.* Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

c) Bess Goodykoontz and Beulah I. Coon, *Family Living and Our Schools.* New York: D. Appleton–Century Co., 1941.

rapid growth in the concern for family-life education. With the divorce rate in the ratio of one divorce to every three marriages and promising to rise rather than to decline, the public has become keenly interested in programs that can prevent the breaking-up of the family. Various research projects have also indicated clearly that there is a close relationship between family adjustments, particularly those which center in the personal interrelationships of the family, and various problems of individual adjustment. Over and over again, inadequate individual adjustments produce problems, not only for the individual, but for society as well.

It has been demonstrated that chronic alcoholism, intolerance, sexual promiscuity, juvenile delinquency, and other problems of personal adjustment are the result of inadequate and deficient personality adjustments, frustrations, hostilities, insecurities, and inadequacies and that these, in turn, arise from unstable, chaotic, disunited homes. As an illustration of the importance of this relationship, let us look at alcoholism. Alcoholism has been proclaimed as "our billion-dollar headache." If alcoholism is that important as a social problem—and there is no reason to doubt its seriousness—then society had better correct the conditions which cause it. Correcting the conditions means a real concern with the improving of homes and family living.

Another reason for the rapidly increasing interest in family-life educa-tion is that enough experimentation has taken place for us to understand better how to go about building successful school programs. Out of the research, study, and experience of the past few years, several concepts important to educators who are interested in family life have emerged.

CREATION OF DEPARTMENTS AND COURSES

I will have time to consider here only certain aspects of family-life education, and, therefore, I will emphasize emerging concepts of family-life education, particularly from the point of view of the curriculum and the curricular content in the secondary schools. It is this level at which most changes are now occurring and at which increasingly successful efforts are being made to help young people to prepare for their own marriages and family life.

The first emerging concept is the increasing tendency to centralize the material in family-life education through the creation of family-life departments and the inauguration of courses. In the earlier discussions of family-life education, as, for example, in most of the material in the three 1941 yearbooks, much emphasis was laid on integration as an approach to family-life education in the schools. The job was to be accomplished through the incorporation of materials on family life into social studies, biology, health and physical education, home economics, and similar courses. Most subjects move into the curricu-

lum in this way. The current trend is toward a more definitely outlined body of instructional material on family-life education. This material is being presented increasingly through a course or courses on the family, preparation for marriage, and personal adjustment, particularly in the later years of high school.

This trend does not mean that integration should be rejected. The incorporation of materials into biology, social studies, and other courses of the curriculum can do much to lay a sound foundation for courses in preparation for marriage and family living. The integration approach as the sole or chief approach, however, has three weaknesses.

First, it has proved difficult to coordinate the content. For example, the teacher of science does not know or understand what is being taught by the teacher in home economics.

Second, it has proved difficult to get complete pupil coverage. While there is an obvious reason why certain pupils will elect to take advanced mathematics and others to omit it, family living would seem to be one area in which all pupils should receive instruction. These two difficulties cannot be overcome unless a program of family-life education is developed.

A third weakness is that, in the hands of teachers who are academic, the materials of family-life education usually become academic rather than functional. Unless a teacher has been taught through preparation and ex-perience to think functionally, he finds difficulty in taking materials as personal as those which should be included in courses in family-life education and applying them to the improvement of individual adjustment and family situations. Unless family-life education is made functional, it becomes simply another subject added to an already crowded curriculum.

A more satisfactory way might be to think of the integration of materials from social studies, biology, and similar subjects into family-life education. This would move the school program in the direction of a functional concept around which to organize instruction. There is one caution which must be observed. Family-life education cannot, and should not, be divorced from the rest of the school program. An effective program must be related to the guidance and counseling program of the school. It should be associated with a program of home-school co-operation and such home visitation as the school can organize. As suggested before, a foundation for family-life education can be laid in other courses or parts of the school program. For example, the proper kind of an elementary-school program in family-life education would make an important contribution to a good program at the secondary-school level. Furthermore, effective programs for family-life education must be built by a person who knows the field and who can help bring together and organize the materials so that they contribute to functional objectives. That person must

also relate the program to the total school program.

INCLUDING BOTH SEXES

A second emerging concept is that the program must be planned to include both boys and girls. In the early days of family-life education, when the chief emphasis was on home management, it was almost entirely a girls' program. Now it is increasingly recognized that both sexes have different and yet very definite roles to play in the establishment of a happy and stable family. For that reason both boys and girls—men and women— need to be prepared for their places in the family. This does not mean that boys and girls must be included in all phases of the program or that they will be taught the same things throughout the program. It does mean that, in many aspects of the program, men and women will study together those problems which are of mutual concern to them. It also means that the unique roles of each sex in family life will be recognized and that help will be given toward the fulfilment of this unique function. Until both young men and young women receive assistance in preparing for family living, a program for family-life education must be considered incomplete.

In the curricular content itself, more and more emphasis is being placed on instruction which covers the current concerns and present needs of youth. Because of their timeliness, courses in preparation for marriage and units on dating, courtship, and mate selection are being established in many schools and are being met with enthusiastic response on the part of the pupils.

Certain curricular emphases are important for incorporation into courses or units on preparation for marriage and family life. The first is the improvement of personality adjustment and a program to assist individuals in achieving emotional maturity. This emphasis is highly important, as is indicated by the various studies and research projects on marital success. Several of these studies have demonstrated that the most important single factor in predicting the marital happiness of an individual is the type of home situation from which he comes. An individual who, as a child, had happy, secure, affectional relationships in his family has heightened chances of marital success. This relationship exists not simply because the individual's home was happy or unhappy but because a family situation in which the affectional ties are weak, in which the child feels unwanted, insecure, or rejected, or in which he experiences the tension of frequent conflict and division, often produces personality difficulties and problems of personal adjustment which prevent the individual from setting up effective human relationships. In other words, his emotionally disturbed outlook on life and his lack of emotional maturity are factors which upset his own marriage.

In a recent book, *Divorce Won't*

Help,[3] Dr. Edmund Bergler argues that so many marriages end in court because so many people who are neurotic marry. Bergler feels that neurotic people carry their neurotic adjustments into marriage and, because of them, are unable to make an effective adjustment in marriage. They then decide upon divorce as a neurotic solution and hope to find happiness in that way. They may remarry only to run into the same difficulty again, since the underlying cause for the difficulty has not been removed. If this argument is sound—and I think the evidence of psychiatric studies and the experience of marriage counselors show that it is—then the emphasis on the improvement of personality adjustment and the development of mature personalities becomes one of the most important factors in preparing for good family life.

It is at this point that the guidance and counseling program of both the elementary and the secondary school becomes of paramount importance to the program of family-life education. Even though no reference is made to marriage in the work of the guidance and counseling teachers and in classes on personality adjustment, the success achieved in improving personality adjustment still contributes to marital success.

A second important emphasis in curricular content is the inclusion of material on dating, courtship, and mate selection and actual preparation

for marriage. This particular emphasis is one which is received with enthusiasm by high-school youth. These young people, particularly in the last two years of high school, are at a level of maturity in which these questions are of keen interest and current importance. They need help in seeing that the problems of interpersonal relations in dating, courtship, and marriage are essentially problems of human relations and that, if one is to be successful in preparing for marriage, these problems must be approached as such.

Many of our young people ask questions which indicate that they think that, if only they knew some particular facts, success would be assured. "How long should a couple go together before they are engaged?" "How long should the engagement period be?" "How many girls should a boy date before he asks one to marry him?" "How much money should a couple have before they marry?" "How far should one live from one's 'in-laws'?" These questions are asked in hope that some specific fact will give the questioner the solution to his problems. The inquirers have not yet grasped that it is not so much the amount of money which one has, the number of girls which one dates, or the distance which one lives from one's "in-laws" that counts, as it is the kind of people involved and their ability to work out successful human relationships.

There is a need also for emphasizing the ever changing nature of marriage.

[3] Edmund Bergler, M.D., *Divorce Won't Help.* New York: Harper & Bros., 1948.

While some individuals seem aware of the numerous postmarital adjustments which they will face, others have the idea that, once you are married, everything is settled and you live happily ever after. Young people must be helped to see that successful marriage requires effort and attention to the human-relation phases.

Discussion is needed on the nature of love. The typical Hollywood concepts of romantic love are commonly found among young people. They expect to "fall in love" when a much better concept would be to "grow in love." They have little understanding of the essential arrangements in an enduring love relationship. The situation suggested by a writer who interviewed couples who were taking out marriage licenses at the court house is all too realistic. She asked the women who were waiting with their prospective husbands why they felt that this particular man was the "one and only." According to her report, the typical reply was, "He sends me!" Too many marriages are being contracted on a basis such as this.

If young people can be helped to know the kinds of satisfactions that are important in enduring marriage, their chances of success in marriage will be improved. They get an overemphasized and distorted picture of the physical satisfactions of marriage and either overlook, or are unable to distinguish, the presence or lack of harmony and fundamental philosophy in life-values. A boy who is essentially uninterested in social life may marry a girl whose life has been built around social activities. He has come to feel he loves her because his ability to capture this girl in a dating relationship brought him confidence and social prestige, and he hopes that this kind of satisfaction will carry him through the vicissitudes of marriage.

In the groups with which the staff members of the Association for Family Living work we find that there is a real interest in the unique problems of boys and girls, men and women, in courtship and marriage. The effect which our typical educational methods have on the concepts of men and women toward sex, work in the home, rearing of children, and masculine and feminine roles is a closed book to most young people. Yet it is on the soundness of these concepts that their marriages will stand or fall.

SEX EDUCATION

The emphasis on dating and courtship inevitably leads to the third important emphasis: a consideration of sex development and adjustment. It is this emphasis, more than any other, which keenly disturbs teachers and school authorities when they consider instruction in preparation for marriage. They are fearful of the possible unfortunate consequences of any kind of sex education. Family-life education, or preparation for marriage, should not be sex education in another guise. However, in order to meet pupils' needs adequately, these programs must encompass sex education. I often assume that school authorities

no longer question the need for sex education, only to find the need for it questioned in the most surprising places. I cannot document the evidence of need adequately in this talk, but, for your information, I should like to refer you to a recently published article, *The Facts Speak for Sex Education.*[4] This article surveys the various research findings and sets forth a factual basis upon which to build programs of sex education.

The most outstanding piece of research in this particular field is the one which is now receiving wide attention, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male.*[5] Doubtless most of you are familiar with Kinsey's findings. For one thing, these findings show that sex patterns differ with the economic and educational levels of the individual. This is evidence that sex patterns can be, and are, influenced by education when education is defined broadly.The findings also show that sex manifestations are observable early in the life of the individual and that, as far as boys are concerned, some pattern of sexual behavior is built at the time of puberty, if not before. Kinsey's figures show that 93 per cent of all youth masturbate and that, by the time they reach the age of seventeen, 68 per cent of all youth who have attended high school

4 Lester Allen Kirkendall and Mark Fleitzer, *The Facts Speak for Sex Education.* Chicago: Association for Family Living (28 East Jackson Blvd.), 1947. Reprinted from *Clearing House,* XXII (September, 1947), 27–31.

5 Alfred C. Kinsey, Wardell B. Pomeroy, and Clyde E. Martin, *Sexual Behavior in the Human Male.* Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1948.

but who are not college bound have had premarital intercourse. There are a number of other studies which substantiate these findings. We are simply deluding ourselves if we believe that ignoring this whole subject means that youth hold their impulses in abeyance until they get answers to their questions.

The staff of the Association for Family Living reaches many high-school youth in its courses in sex education and preparation for marriage. Work with these youth makes it clear that they have definite needs in the way of knowledge and understanding and that, in an effort to meet these needs, they resort to experimentation and go to many thoroughly unreliable sources to secure help. I have recently been doing some work with young men on their sex worries and concerns. I have found that about 90 per cent of them have, or have had, worries or concerns of enough moment that they would like to secure help.

In dealing with these youth, one is dealing not with boys and girls but with men and women. That is certainly true in a biological sense. The things that they want to know are things which many adults are extremely reluctant to discuss with them because of a feeling that this knowledge will produce morbid curiosity and experimentation. These young people want to know the place of sex in marriage and premarital relationships. They want to know how sex can be, and should be, used and what represents normal expression of sex. They

want to know what love is, how it is recognized, and how to distinguish it from physical passion. They are trying to build their own attitudes toward sex, and the presentation of a mature, responsible attitude toward the sex function helps them to become mature and responsible individuals.

As I have said, parents and teachers often fear that a discussion of sex will produce morbid curiosity. They ignore the fact that sex is freely written about and discussed from every angle, usually in an irresponsible and stimulating manner. The choice we have is not between giving or not giving help. It is between giving the best possible help or leaving young people to the mercies of those persons who would exploit them for their own profit. There is ample evidence to show that, if sex education is approached from the standpoint of preparing for marriage and family living and if competent teachers handle the subject, parents will not only accept sex education but strongly support and approve it.

THE PRESENT FAMILY SITUATION

The fourth important emphasis centers in improving the adjustment of the pupil to his present family situation. Discussion of the parent-child relationship will almost inevitably arise as soon as consideration is given to improving home adjustment. Pupils inevitably think in terms of their own present homes and parents. This emphasis is closely and importantly related to the first emphasis that was mentioned, namely, the improvement

of personal adjustment and the development of emotional maturity. The home in which one is reared has much to do with one's general psychological adjustment.

CHILD-REARING

The fifth emphasis is a consideration of child-rearing as an aspect of family life. Young people who are preparing for marriage and family living should understand the importance of their role as parents. A married couple with children is commonly a parental couple much longer than they are simply a married couple without children. Parenthood alters family relationships in many ways and requires certain concepts and values for its success. It is doubtful whether youth of high-school age, particularly boys, will take a strong interest in an academic child-care approach, but they will probably be interested in what responsibilities they will have as parents and what contributions they can make to their children.

Several schools have attempted to meet this need in a realistic manner. The Tulsa (Oklahoma) and Highland Park (Michigan) high schools, for example, have provided ways in which both boys and girls have direct contact with children in a nursery-school situation. These experiments have been highly successful, and, in the schools in which they have been tried, the outcomes have been judged to be most worth while. The young people enrolled in the experiments have come to understand the basic needs of chil-

dren more fully and, in the process, have come to a better understanding of themselves.

Some of the current research studies give increased importance to the development of this emphasis in a family-life education program. It is becoming increasingly clear that the kind of psychological care—the love, affection, security, and understanding —which the child receives in the first days and weeks of life are tremendously important to his total personal development. If parents wait until their child is born before they begin to study parental responsibilities, considerable damage may have resulted from inadequacy and mismanagement before they are aware of what constitutes the best care. For this reason, pre-parental education is an important part of preparation for family living.

BUILDING A PHILOSOPHY OF LIFE

A sixth important emphasis is the building of values, or the development of a philosophy of life. This emphasis is most successful when it is incidental to other discussions, and, yet, its inclusion must be carefully planned. In groups of young people who are met by the staff of the Association for Family Living, questions are asked which indicate the concern and need of youth for the development of values to guide them in setting up standards of moral conduct. There is obviously a general lack of values, but there is also a lack of an awareness of the relationship of means to ends.

Young people may hold certain values and still in their behavior work in diametrically the opposite direction.

THE SCHOOL'S RESPONSIBILITY

A final emerging concept is the recognition that the schools have a responsibility for helping parents to meet their responsibilities as parents more adequately. To that end, some school systems, for example, Seattle, Los Angeles, Kansas City, Denver, and Pasadena, have provided leadership which became engaged in forming and leading discussion groups for parents, in providing reading and visual materials, and in working with individual families to help them meet their unique problems. This concept has been extended, in some cases, to include expectant parents, parents of preschool and nursery-school children, and parents of adolescent children. I know of one school which had meetings of grandparents also; for grandparents are important personages in many a home.

I would like to consider three points which have become clear in regard to the organization of programs of family life. First, the crucial factor in achieving success is the personal qualifications of the teacher. The teacher must be well adjusted and personally interested in, and acceptable to, the pupils. While academic qualifications are important, they can be built. The personal qualifications that are essential for success are difficult to build, especially if the teacher at middle age still does not indicate that he possesses

them. I would look for a teacher who gave evidence of emotional maturity in his own adjustment, who had already given some evidence of ability in acting as a counselor for youth, and who had a fund of common sense and good judgment. After that he could be helped in securing the academic qualifications necessary for instruction in family-life education.

However, as a basis for obtaining the academic qualifications, a background in psychological or sociological preparation is valuable; for the approach which needs to be made is that of helping youth to see the complexities of the human interrelationships which exist in marriage and in the family. A positive mental-hygiene approach is important, therefore, and the teacher's academic background should predispose him to the acceptance of this approach. Most of the schools with which I have been working have begun by using some teacher within the system. The superintendents have encouraged the teachers to get further preparation but, at the same time, have found that their schools were better off in talent than they had thought.

The second point with reference to organization is that a program of counseling should accompany group instruction. Inevitably many problems of a personal nature will arise in these courses. The teacher should be qualified to counsel or should have access to qualified personnel who can give assistance to pupils in meeting problems of personal adjustment.

Third, it is important that the program of family-life education utilize whatever assistance can be gained from community agencies. The libraries, infant-welfare centers, home-health programs, and, in larger cities, social agencies, special counseling services, and similar resources should be studied and utilized whenever possible.

One thing which has become clear in the last few years is that community acceptance of programs in preparation for marriage and in family-life education is no more of a problem than community acceptance of any other area of instruction; in fact, it is probably much less. The chief concern in gaining community acceptance is usually the sex-education aspect. The important thing for public acceptance is to avoid publicity and talk which emphasizes sex instruction as the core or central objective of the program. Superintendents who have developed programs of family-life education have found parents coming to them with expressions of appreciation and approval rather than with protests as they had expected.

I would like to take time to relate what has happened in this area in the last two years in the Chicago and suburban high schools. I cannot give a school-by-school account, but I know of at least fifteen high schools in which programs of family-life education have already been started or are being started with the opening of school this fall. Nearly all this devel-

opment has occurred in the last two years.

The approaches have varied from school to school. For example, several schools have full-fledged credit courses, other schools have begun their programs as an extra-curriculum club arrangement and have expanded it into a much larger program. Some have used the process of integration, and still others have relied on outside assistance in getting started. The essential factor in all schools has been the determination to do something about the problem. When they had arrived at that point, they found that something could be done.

THE SIGNIFICANCE OF FAMILY-LIFE EDUCATION

Last, let me point out the significance of family-life education. The stability of the family affects our whole social structure. Current research on the origin of certain social problems has demonstrated, over and over again, that many of these problems have their genesis in the family situation—juvenile delinquency, chronic alcoholism, sexual promiscuity, divorce, and similar problems are commonly the manifestations of personal maladjustments which, in turn, grow out of unstable, inadequate families. Even family instability comes from family instability. As I pointed out earlier, divorce itself is often an expression of a neurotic adjustment which was the result of an individual's own family situation and which, if there are children in the family, may be communicated to the children so that their marriages will be unsatisfactory.

Recently a well-known psychiatrist lecturing on the relationship of the family to enduring peace observed that the problem of obtaining world peace depended on rearing mature, adult, balanced individuals and that this in turn depended on the kind of families which existed in our society. From the standpoint of safeguarding our social structure it is absolutely imperative that the schools take every possible step to strengthen the family structure. In doing so, they make a great contribution to fortifying the general social structure.

Probably nothing affects the life of the individual more than does his own family adjustment. All of us, whether we like it or not, are the products of our families. Yet too many of us are quite unaware of how important that background has been. If the schools are genuinely concerned with helping individuals toward better living, they cannot escape a concern with helping to improve family life.

VALIDATION OF A PERSONALITY SURVEY
OF A JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

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THIS report is a follow-up and validation, through case studies, of the personality survey which was made of the James Otis Junior High School of New York City. The survey was described in the October, 1947, issue of the *School Review*.[1]

THE SURVEY

In this personality survey, eight kinds of evidence which shed light on the personality adjustments of the pupils in this school were gathered: age, a vocabulary test, a test of paragraph comprehension, a pupil questionnaire, a teacher rating, a sociometric rating by pupils, absence, and marks. Deciles were computed for each of these variables, and the pupil's standing in the tenth of his class was obtained in each variable. A median of these measures of the tenth of the class on each of the eight variables for a given pupil served as a rough composite measure of adjustment. Pupils in the top two tenths were those who not only made the best record in school but were well thought of by teachers and classmates and who thought well of themselves. Pupils in the lowest tenths made the poorest all-round records in school.

Two measures of difference served to detect those pupils with low promise but good performance and those with high promise but poor performance. The original report should be consulted for the exact factors which were used in determining these difference measures.

THE VALIDATION

After the survey had been completed, case studies of individual pupils were made in order to verify the results of the survey and in order to help the writer get a firsthand impression of the boys who made extreme scores of various kinds. The results of this more intensive study of individual pupils indicate that the survey was highly successful in accomplishing its purpose. Five extreme types were found.

1. Boys with median ratings of 10 were outstanding boys in this school. They tended to excel in scholarship and leadership. Many of them were

[1] Percival M. Symonds and Murray Sherman, "A Personality Survey of a Junior High School," *School Review*, LV (October, 1947), 449–61.

members of the Youth Builders Club, an organization that provides opportunity for the expression of leadership in various school and community enterprises. Individual boys with ratings of 10 gave the impression of being alert and ambitious, with a desire to go on through high school and possibly college and to make the most of their opportunities. It was evident that they came from good, self-respecting homes in which they were both encouraged and given opportunities to develop normally and to make good school records.

2. Boys with a median rating of 1 and 2, on the other hand, immediately impressed the observer as having failed to meet the expectations of the school and community. A number of the boys in this group may be classified as psychopaths or as persons with psychopathic personalities. Many tended to be truants. Several of them had been in trouble with the police and were known by their teachers to have indulged in destruction of property, petty gambling, and other minor misdemeanors. Many also were highly impulsive, were lacking in ordinary self-control, and gave their teachers considerable disciplinary trouble in the classroom. Not all boys who received median decile ratings of 1 and 2, however, were of this type. Some tended to be passive, retiring, and masochistic, while still others were characterized by their lack of ability.

It is not possible, as a result of this survey, to determine whether there are more boys with psychopathic tendencies in this school than would be found in other schools. One is reminded, however, of the often-referred-to survey by E. K. Wickman,[2] in which he compared the characteristics which Cleveland teachers found most serious in elementary-school pupils with those considered most serious by mental hygienists. The Cleveland teachers rated delinquencies, sex behavior, and annoying behavior in the classroom as the most frequent and serious personality problems, whereas mental hygienists considered withdrawing behavior an indication of the most serious personality problem. Wickman's study has had a great deal of influence in persuading teachers to overlook the pupil with aggressive tendencies as not representing any important deviation from the normal and in urging them to focus their attention on the shy and withdrawn pupil. The study has helped to make teachers afraid to face the seriousness of the pupil with psychopathic tendencies.

Most of the pupils in this school who have psychopathic tendencies are not true psychopaths. They have well-formed superegos and show guilt and shame, but there is a defect in their control over their impulsive tendencies. These boys are as sick as the withdrawing child, and, while they may not end up in mental hospitals, many will find it difficult to play the

[2] E. K. Wickman, *Teachers and Behavior Problems.* Digest of *Children's Behavior and Teachers' Attitudes.* New York: Commonwealth Fund, 1938.

role expected of them as members of society. Indeed, Wickman's study, having discouraged teachers from considering these boys sick, has left teachers with only the recourse of considering them disciplinary problems. This attitude, however, fails to meet the real needs which these boys present.

3. Boys with high minus deviations are similar in many respects to boys with median ratings of 1 and 2, except for the fact that boys with high minus deviations tend to have good ability. Many of them were in the brightest sections of their classes and displayed a cleverness and quickness which went along with their high ability and promise. Many also displayed psychopathic tendencies but with the difference that they were more clever in avoiding detection, in outwitting their teachers, and in being difficult to pin down. In this group, too, there were boys with neurotic tendencies—the school's counterpart of "occupational inhibition"—who showed a high degree of resistance and lack of motivation to the program which the school offered them. It was believed that these boys, with their superior ability, at least in terms of the standards of this school, should profit most by individual case studies, guidance, and psychotherapy.

4. The boys with high plus deviations also presented a distinct picture to the clinical observer. A number of the boys with plus deviations of 6, 7, and 8 were in classes of children with retarded mental development. However backward they were in reading or arithmetic, they were neat and clean, possessed good character qualities, and gave evidence of coming from respectable and refined homes. They were making the most of the talents which they possessed and were profiting as much as their abilities would permit from the program which the school offered.

5. One other group of boys may be mentioned, namely, those boys who scored low on the personality questionnaire. These were boys with strong feelings of inferiority and poor social relations. Many of them came from homes low in the economic scale. Because they had experienced neglect and deprivation throughout their lives, they had developed marked neurotic trends, which were characterized by poor social relations and feelings of inferiority. Many of them had good ability but lacked the stamina and motivation to enable them to do good work.

CASE DESCRIPTIONS

The following personality sketches are representative of the five extremes which have just been mentioned.

BOY 1 (High rating)

Age: 12
Grade: VII B-1
Ratings: Age, 10; vocabulary, 9; reading, 10; questionnaire, 10; sociometric, 10; teacher rating, 9; attendance, 1; marks, 10; median rating, 10

Boy 1 appears to be a bright-eyed, alert lad, somewhat eager and curious to know why he should have been called from class for the interview. His low decile score in attendance is due to the fact that he has

had many headaches. He likes all his work in school and finds it interesting. He has the ambition to finish high school but has not thought beyond that time. His ambition is to be a baseball player, and he follows the New York Yankees closely.

After school he may play baseball or stick ball in the street. Then he goes home to study before supper. He does some studying after supper also, although studying outside of school is unusual with the boys in this school.

In his home, he has a room of his own in which he does his schoolwork. He likes to read and owns such books as *Tom Sawyer*, *Treasure Island*, *The Prince and the Pauper*, *David Copperfield*, and *The Man without a Country*. He goes to the movies once a week. His father gives him an allowance of a dollar a week, out of which he manages to save fifty cents. He helps with the housework and runs errands.

When he is spoken to, his face lights up, but, at other times, he is serious. He is conscientious about his lessons and works hard. Although he is of the compulsive type, he has a normal interest in sports.

The Rorschach test gives a picture of a boy who is immature in many respects and extremely compulsive. He responded to the Rorschach test in the way in which he probably responds to every task in school. He studied each card intently and, after looking at the card as a whole, went meticulously around the edge of each figure searching for some profile or shape that he could recognize. As a consequence, there are a great many tiny and edge details. There was a large amount of animal movement in his responses, which points to immaturity.

His stories on the picture-story test, however, were rich and full and mature. He had a variety of themes and built the stories around significant plots. Nevertheless, his tendencies toward thoroughness showed themselves on this test as well; for, in a number of instances, he seemed unable to wind up the story and had difficulty in bringing it to completion.

BOY 2 (Low rating)

Age: 14

Grade: VII B-1

Ratings: Age, 1; vocabulary, 9; reading, 4; questionnaire, 3; sociometric, 1; teacher rating, 1; attendance, 3; marks, 1; median rating, 2

Teacher rating: Poor eyesight, show-off, insolent, causes class disturbances, hyperactive, peculiar

Sociometric: Tough guy, 8; "screwball," 6; show-off, 10; gets "sore," 6; queer, 3; has fewest friends, 2; jumpy, 1

This boy gives a great deal of difficulty in school. In many classes he seems to be uncontrollable, uses profane and obscene language, jumps up on the furniture, and talks back to the teachers. At a boys' club he was reported as being "fresh" and difficult, and he had been taken in hand by the other boys. Boy 2, who is somewhat tall for his age, is a sheepish, pleasant-looking boy, hiding behind thick glasses.

He believes that he should be in the third term in high school and that he has been discriminated against by being kept back unnecessarily. He does not care for academic work and likes to do things with his hands. A jewel box which he fashioned out of clay has been put in the exhibit case in the school corridor. He hopes to go into some mechanical trade when he finishes school and would like to become an automobile mechanic. Although his mother wants him to go to high school, he does not know what he wants to do and will wait until he is fifteen to decide.

He told the examiner about a classroom episode in which a teacher was having a "scrap" with a boy, and other boys in the class were trying to pull him away. Boy 2, believing the teacher at fault, tried to push her away. He reported that this teacher "had it in for him" after that incident. He acted as he did because he thought that the teacher was in the wrong.

After school he hangs around with boys on the street. His gang would like to rent a store for a clubroom, but they do not have

enough money. He showed the examiner his school notebook, which was neat but showed lack of ability. Apparently he had copied everything the teacher had put on the blackboard without understanding it.

Boy 2 has an older brother, just out of the Army, and a married sister. His mother is a young, pretty Italian woman who is eager to talk about her son. It is evident that she has overprotected him, that there is close affection between them, and that she shields him from criticism from the outside. She talked about his friends' being good boys and about his having to be in at nine-thirty. She complained that he does not like to be "bossed" around and insists that he has always wanted to work in order to help the finances of the family. The father's last job was being a "bouncer" in a poolroom, and there is a record of considerable drunkenness. The mother took Boy 2 to a near-by psychiatric clinic, but, although the psychiatrist made an appointment for her to come back with him, she has never returned and asserts that she understood that everything was all right.

The Rorschach test indicates considerable mental confusion, much negativistic behavior, and little control. There is evidence of some sexualized anxiety. Although the intellectual level is not high, the test shows signs of fruitless attempts to attain a high level of mental activity, without the necessary qualifications.

Teachers in the school complain about Boy 2 and would be relieved if he could be assigned to another school. As one teacher said, "He could give any teacher a mental breakdown."

BOY 3 (High minus difference)

Age: 13

Grade: VII B-2

Ratings: Age, 5; vocabulary, 8; reading, 9; questionnaire, 10; sociometric, 1; teacher rating, 1; attendance, 7; marks 1; median rating, 6; median of the first three, 8; of the last five, 1; difference, −7

Teacher rating: Bluffs when reciting, indiffer-

ent to school, lazy, disinterested, inattentive, daydreamer, hyperactive, excitable, nervous, constantly moving around

Sociometric: Show-off, 8; dreamy, 9; sneaky, 3; queer, 2; tough guy, 1; "screwball," 1; gets "sore," 1

Boy 3 is a short, smiling, round-faced, Irish boy, who has a record of truancy and classroom disorder. While with the examiner, he assumed an unusually frank and pleasant attitude. He seemed to be curious regarding the nature of the study. He gave the impression, at first, of being frank and spontaneous, but it was noticeable that he put his best foot forward and said nothing to condemn himself. As the intimate nature of the study became apparent, he grew more reticent and, by the end of the interview, provided information only on questioning.

He wants to go through high school but has not thought about a vocation. After school he plays around the streets. He likes to get old boxes in his back yard and build things. One Sunday he went to a neighboring park and was greatly interested in the model airplanes which various boys were testing out. One plane, in particular, that had a small, one-cylinder motor intrigued him. This boy says that he does not have many friends and has never been elected to any office in school.

His father died three years ago; his mother divorced his father when Boy 3 was a year old, and soon after she married again. He states that his stepfather is like a real father to him and that he is treated just the same as his younger stepbrother. However, there is evidence from fantasy material that this is not true and that there is considerable rivalry between the boys. When he plays truant, his mother becomes sad and tells his stepfather. His stepfather then talks to him, telling him that, if he does not go to school, he will turn out bad and threatening to beat him and to send him away if he stays out of school any more.

Boy 3 is obstinate in the classroom and, on occasions, will refuse to do anything that is requested of him. He resists arithmetic in

particular, complaining that he never learned short division in the elementary school. On the other hand, he is extremely clever in trading or swapping, has a good sense of values, and is able to end a series of trades with possessions worth considerably more than those with which he started. He has no compunction about matching pennies, rolling dice, and other simple forms of gambling.

Boy 3 took the Rorschach test on a day in which he had been extremely resistant in the classroom and had refused to do any work. He made only six responses on the Rorschach test. He failed to give any response to cards 1, 4, 7, and 10. On the other hand, the few responses which he gave showed creditable qualities. There were two human-movement responses, indicating a richness of inner life and a general maturity of expression. The Rorschach test pointed to a struggle for dominance, the presence of some anxiety, a belief in magic, and ability which is not used to capacity.

The first stories told on the picture-story test were full of propriety—the kinds of stories that he felt were expected of him in the school. Later, however, his moral conflict was brought out clearly, as is illustrated by the following story told in the second session with this test:

"This could be two kids. One wants to go to school; the other is saying, 'Why go to school? Stay at home and hang around the streets where you can have some fun. Teachers only talk.'

"This boy is trying to make a truant out of the other boy. The other boy doesn't look like a truant. The way it turns out is that he probably goes to school. 'I don't want to have nothing to do with you.' He is thinking about trouble and the worry that his mother will be having. He is thinking of the future for himself. He will learn to steal and, when he grows up, he will be no good. When he grows up, he doesn't want to be a thief but wants to get married. So it turns out that he goes to school."

This story undoubtedly represents a real conflict in Boy 3 and his desire to do what he thinks. is expected of him, even though in real life he does not live up to these ideals. The writer also feels that this boy is adept at putting on a show and that part of the reason for telling this story was that it would create a favorable attitude in the examiner.

BOY 4 (High plus difference)

Age: 14

Grade: VIII A-5 (CMRD—children with retarded mental development class)

Ratings: Age, 1; vocabulary, 3; reading, 1; questionnaire, 8; sociometric, 8; teacher rating, 6; attendance, 7; marks, 10; median rating, 5.5; median first three, 1; of the last five, 8; difference, 7

Teacher rating: None

Sociometric: Sissy, 4; smartest, 6 (within this group); fewest friends, 5; representative for student council, 1

Questionnaire: Unfavorable items checked— unhappy, feels ashamed when he talks to a girl, does not get along well with other people, worries

Boy 4 is a neatly dressed, pleasant-appearing boy, with a somewhat stolid face. He stated openly that he has had trouble in reading since Grade V A. He falters on easy words, and it makes him nervous to have to try to read. He is much better in arithmetic but likes painting and woodwork best. He speaks well of his teachers. Although he would like to go to a smarter class, he would hate to leave his teacher and his classmates. He states frankly, "I am not so smart. I would like to go to another class, but I know I will make out better in this class."

His father is an invalid, and his mother, who formerly worked, now stays at home to take care of his father. His brother married recently, and the entire support of the family now depends on his sister, who earns thirty dollars a week in a brassiere factory. His father has a nervous ailment, and his body shakes continually.

His brother is a baker, and Boy 4 would like to become a baker also. He hopes that, in the future, he may be able to start in business and to own his store. There is a job waiting for him in his brother's shop when he gets through school, but he would like to go as far as he can in school.

After school he helps his mother by doing errands and then plays. He belongs to a boys' club, which meets on Wednesdays, and goes to the movies every Sunday. He was once elected vice-president in his class but states that he was "busted" because it was more responsibility than he could manage. He said, "There are taller boys than me who can do it better."

He does not have much to do with girls and says that there is plenty of time for girls later. He is afraid of larger Negro boys and will run from them. A few years ago, his hand was cut so badly that seventeen stitches were taken, and the scars on his hand still show. He is inclined to worry about his family and would like to be able to help them financially as soon as possible.

His Rorschach test shows considerable anxiety and fear of aggression. Boy 4 shows strong feelings of inferiority and a passive masochistic tendency. It appeared from observation that his poor school record might, in part, have an emotional basis and that he has more potential ability than his school record would indicate.

BOY 5 (Low score on personality questionnaire)

Age: 14

Grade: IX A-1

Ratings: Age, 9; vocabulary, 10; reading, 8; questionnaire, 1; sociometric, 2; teacher rating, 6; attendance, 3; marks, 2; median rating, 4.5

Sociometric: Dreamy guy, 12; choice for companion on overnight hike, 3; hard to get along with, 1; fewest friends, 1; jumpy, 1

Teacher rating: Show-off, attention getting

Questionnaire: Negative items checked—tired, unhappy, likes to be alone, has bad dreams,

feels like running away, daydreams, embarrassed when talking to a girl, loses temper, would quit school, teachers and father and mother pick on him, parents do not listen to troubles, has headaches, is dizzy, is restless, boys do not want him around, does not get along with people, classmates are not friendly, worries about tests, fellows talk behind his back

This case was selected for presentation because of his low score on the questionnaire. He came in with a somewhat wild and worried look on his face; his hair was unkempt; his white shirt was badly torn at the shoulder; and he gave the impression of being ill at ease and uncared for. During the interview he was somewhat reticent and protective.

He likes art and drawing in school best and finds the mathematics, particularly algebra, most difficult. He is doubtful about going on to high school and would not commit himself positively about it.

He has an older brother, aged sixteen, who has been in continuation school and is now looking for a job. An older sister is married and does not live at home. A younger sister, six, has not yet entered school. The father works in a woodshop; the mother, in a bakery. Sometimes Boy 5 has to stay home from school to take care of his younger sister, although she is usually left in the care of their grandmother.

He would like to get a job working in a grocery store. He has not joined either the boys' club or the Boy Scouts. He plays ball on the street after school and goes to the movies every Sunday. At school he is a member of the Newman Club. He has a few friends, has never been elected captain of any team, and does not have anything to do with girls.

He admires his cousin by marriage, an electrician, who has a good education and knows his trade. He also admires his brother-in-law, a junk dealer, who is also his godfather.

He states that he sometimes feels like

running away after having arguments with his mother. He finds school distasteful, particularly on Mondays. He worries about tests and says that his father would not like it much if he were to fail, although he is not afraid of his father. He states that the older fellows leave him out of things, and he feels that he is not wanted by boys who are older than he. He has dreams of falling from the roof and also of being a big businessman at some time.

The Rorschach test showed that he was somewhat inhibited, and some of his responses were indicative of anxiety and possibly of sexual fantasies. All in all, Boy 5 is representative of boys with low scores on the questionnaire. He shows marked feelings of inferiority, lack of ambition, considerable repression, and confusion.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE SURVEY

A personality survey of the kind described in this paper should be immensely valuable for a number of purposes in a junior or senior high school. Its first value would be for the guidance program in the school. Rather than waiting until pupils get into trouble and are referred by teachers, a guidance department could, early in the year, systematically lay out a plan, based on such a survey, for the more intensive study of individual pupils.

It is suggested that the pupils who should be the first to receive more intensive individual study are those with the high minus deviations. Although the pupils with low median ratings do not show much promise of profiting from what the average school offers, they still need individual attention. Naturally a program of more intensive study of individuals is only the

first step. As a result of the study, recommendations leading to a program for each pupil should result. In some cases, this program could take the form of a change of curriculum or activity; in other cases, the pupils need to be brought to the attention of counselors and teachers; and in still other cases, more specialized psychotherapy and treatment may be called for. For too long, education has used hindsight in planning for the needs of individual pupils who deviate from average expectation. If a school wishes to use its resources for the welfare of each pupil in the school, it must plan more systematically for the needs of individual pupils.

A personality survey also has curriculum implications. The pupils with the high median deciles are those who have the most capacity for leadership and scholarship. The curriculums of most schools are adapted to take better care of the needs of this group of pupils than of any other group, and this group usually profits more from the curricular offerings of the average school. However, the alert and ingenious principal should find ways of stimulating and developing leadership potentialities without, at the same time, setting these superior children apart and making them feel that they are different from their classmates.

The greatest problems in any school, however, are found in those pupils with the lowest records on a personality survey and in those with the largest minus discrepancies between performance and promise. The

curriculums of most schools are much less suited to the needs of these deviates than to the needs of those who are making the best records. If, early in the term, a school can identify those pupils whose adjustment is unsatisfactory, it should be able to make some kind of program readjustment to care for their needs.

Although the cases that are described in this article are only five extreme cases which were picked at random, it is believed that they give a representative picture of the kinds of boys who made extreme records in this personality survey. This is convincing, if not conclusive, evidence that a personality survey of this kind accomplishes what it sets out to achieve. It *is* possible, by economical methods, to learn a great deal early in the school year about a boy's potential capacity, his performance, and the kinds of adjustment which he makes to the school situation.

A survey of this kind is not just a piece of "research," or merely a plaything for the statistical- and test-minded school principal. It is a valid method for assessing the personality adjustment of each pupil in the school. It spots those pupils with promise, as well as those who are failing to profit by the opportunities presented by the school. A survey of this type would seem to be an exceedingly important part of the school's task of getting to know the pupils, in order to plan wisely for them and to help them plan wisely for themselves.

The results of a survey of this kind should not be filed away among the school's archives but should be *used*. They should be used in determining the special needs of individual pupils and in helping the school plan means of satisfying these needs. Extreme deviates may require further, more intensive study in order to learn the nature of the deviations and their causes. A school can serve its pupils effectively only when it knows them.

A NEW LOOK AT THE OLD PROBLEM
OF DISCIPLINE

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IN TEACHERS' colleges, students often ask their professors questions about how to discipline classes and refractory individual pupils. The usual response goes something like this, "If your pupils are properly motivated, discipline problems disappear." This answer is true enough to be frustrating to the student of teaching because common sense tells him that the proper motivation of every individual pupil is a problem yet unsolved by the masters in the field of education. Hence he knows that discipline problems will arise to trouble him when he becomes a teacher.

Even experienced teachers find discipline a major problem. Recently, while the writer was engaged in the process of securing faculty participation in the selection of a member of the administrative staff, he asked experienced teachers to give their opinion of the five most important qualifications for this position. Almost every teacher who responded indicated that the ability to help teachers with discipline problems was one of the five most important attributes of an administrator directing the teaching job.

However, it takes more than administrative action to help teachers with discipline. There are valid generalizations about teaching and human motives that have a high degree of certainty. The administrator must be familiar with these generalizations, so that he can apply them readily and thus help the teachers in the problems of school discipline. Reference is not being made here to the discipline of the atypical case, the disturbed personality, the delinquent, or any other of the varieties that provide material for the case studies which fill the modern literature on discipline. It is the problem of the normal control of a random sample of children in the everyday classroom situation—the main problem of discipline with which the student in the teachers' college and the classroom teacher are concerned.

In the field of human control and education there are constants which the artist having the scientific knowledge can apply to reduce materially the amount of uncertainty that handicaps some teachers in school discipline. These constants may be classified in the following groups: (1) the prerequisites to good discipline, (2) the basic principles of learning involved,

(3) the methods in teaching good discipline, (4) common disciplinary difficulties, and (5) devices.

PREREQUISITES TO GOOD DISCIPLINE

Certain prerequisites pave the way and constitute a *sine qua non* for good discipline, even though they do not of themselves achieve this end. The first of these prerequisites is a sound educational program, carefully planned and thoroughly prepared. The more fully the pupils participate in the planning, the more careful the preparation must be.

A second prerequisite is excellent classroom management. Many a young teacher who has spent four years studying child development and the science of education under the direction of experts has seen all this solid knowledge "go up in smoke" in a few minutes when he has tried to get a piece of paper into the hands of each pupil in the class. This simple operation has sometimes proved to be an insurmountable obstacle to securing the kind of participation that would enable an educational program to proceed. Mastery of the mass of meticulous detail that goes into getting materials passed, into controlling physical movement within the class, into returning things to their proper places, and into getting pupils comfortably situated so that it is feasible for them to be receptive to ideas of group cooperation is essential to permit the ongoing process known as the educational program.

A third prerequisite is beginning work promptly. The teacher must be present on time, and other teachers must be out of the way. Pupils learn by example much more than they do by precept. When example and precept disagree, the precept which is being advanced serves only to beget cynicism and to motivate the pupils to devise methods of "beating the game." It is useless for teachers to advise pupils to get to work as soon as they come in if the teacher remains in the corridor, whether the delay be caused by mere dalliance or by essential conferences with parents or teachers. Holding a conference of this kind in the classroom at the opening of a session is equally destructive to good discipline. No time of the day is so important as the opening of a particular session or class period. Interruptions at any other time are less undesirable.

Professionally ethical conduct and attitude on the part of the teachers toward one another is a final prerequisite to good discipline. If teachers indicate that they do not have confidence in each other, whether the indication be made by direct statements to pupils, innuendoes, implications, or any of the other methods that people have of showing displeasure, those teachers tear down their own discipline. Here is where solidarity is essential, where charity toward others is a direct boon to one's self. If you are a teacher, you must think well of other teachers, or the pupils will sense your opinion.

As yet no attempt has been made in

this article to define the term "discipline," nor will any formal attempt be made; for the meaning attached to the term by the writer will unfold throughout the article. The meaning of a term like "discipline" constitutes, in effect, the aims of discipline. Since every aim has implicit in it certain methods of achievement and since the methods which are utilized will determine the end that is achieved, the aims will best be seen when the methods are developed.

BASIC PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING INVOLVED

Principles of learning, almost truistic in their statement, are basic to the achievement of good discipline and demand explicit attention. The first of these is that discipline is learned; hence, changes in an individual's behavior are, at best, gradual. Since a person's behavior involves his total personality, the learning in this area is more gradual than, for example, the learning in a course in mathematics. The injunction that a pupil must change his behavior at once or something drastic may happen is a demand that is more unreasonable than would be a demand that he learn the course in trigonometry by tomorrow morning. If the teacher is to be an educational influence in the total behavior of his pupils, he must have the fortitude to anticipate extremely slow changes, and he must be highly pleased when he finds that an especially unruly and disturbed pupil has become less disturbed and less unruly

after only a few months of careful guidance.

The second basic principle of learning which is involved is that pupils learn by motivation, example, and consistent practice, not by command. A teacher cannot secure a calm manner in the class if he himself is excited. If he speaks loudly, his speech will not be conducive to quiet speech by the pupils. If he talks *at* pupils almost continuously, the pupils will not learn to work without continuous exhortation.

METHODS IN TEACHING GOOD DISCIPLINE

The achievement of the kind of learning which is indicated in the two basic principles presented above requires certain specific methods. First of all, each member of the class, as well as the class as a unit, must be given a stake in good discipline. This is done by assigning to every pupil some responsibility for a task for which he has superior authority over the average pupil in the class. Every pupil must have some responsibility, so that, if the discipline of the class should break down, he would feel that *his* class was being interfered with. The teacher who plans with the pupils the assignment and delegation of authority in this manner will not find it an easier way of life. If anything, it will be more difficult, because the delegation of authority requires a system of close supervision.

Each teacher must take responsibility in disciplining the entire school, in order to make classroom discipline

most effective. The teacher who sees something questionable going on in the corridor or on the recreation field must feel that the situation is just as much his responsibility as if he were put in specific charge of that area.

He must extend his responsibility to the larger field of the community and participate in the creation of a proper public attitude toward teaching and learning in the schools. His discussion of the school must be on a professional level. He must remember that, whenever he goes out into the community, he is a public-relations officer of the school and that what he does and says redounds to the credit or the discredit of the school as an institution.

A disciplinary interview must be conducted by one person only; for the pupils must not be given the idea that adults are "ganging up" on them. If a teacher must refer a case to a person in charge of receiving such referrals and must state the case in the presence of the pupil, he should withdraw as soon as all the information pertinent to the case has been given. From there on, the person in charge of discipline conducts the conference as one individual with another. The not unfamiliar scene of teacher, parent, and administrator in charge of discipline all hacking away at the same young child simultaneously is a horrible example of how a school can create an antagonistic attitude between pupil and the organization that is supposed to have an educating influence upon him.

Supervision should be continuous and persistent at all potential trouble spots and in those matters considered vital to good discipline. Since, at best, learning is gradual, we can expect that potential trouble spots will remain for a long time and that only perseverance will secure the desired growth. Furthermore, some trouble spots are the results of powerful drives which are constantly present.

Meticulous fairness, tempered by consideration for each individual pupil, makes for rapport between teacher and pupil. A teacher, *en rapport* with his pupils, who maintains a calm manner at all times, achieves serenity that cannot be upset by the contumely of immature individuals. He must place himself on a level of maturity which no amount of insolence, disrespect, or lack of understanding of approved relationship between pupil and teacher can undermine. When a teacher feels that he has been insulted by a pupil, he places himself in the same emotional category as the disturbed pupil. Thus he ceases to be a teacher and becomes a disturbed individual who is contesting with another disturbed individual.

COMMON DISCIPLINARY DIFFICULTIES

To be combated, insolence must be understood. When its psychological motive is understood, insolence almost disappears as a manifestation to be combated. The primary cause of insolence is the need for release of tensions. The tensions may arise in the individual himself, in his total milieu, in the classroom, in a particular demand that the situation makes upon

him, or in a variety of other ways closely related or unrelated to the person toward whom he manifests insolence. Obviously, to add tensions to the person already disturbed by them does not constitute a solution. The solution must be found through individual conference and adjustment—a method diametrically opposed to that of indignation and punishment. Often the conference method will reveal opportunities for securing a release or mitigation of the tensions. Even a small percentage of successes through the method of conference and adjustment should be encouraging; for tensions of an explosive nature usually arise from the total environment of the pupil, and the influence that the school can have on this environment may be too little to exert any important force for change. Frequently it is possible to ignore insolent manifestations, and this device sometimes has a salutary effect. At the worst, it does not aggravate the situation.

Often apparent insolence is not true insolence. It is lack of acculturation to middle-class manners. Teachers are people with middle-class backgrounds and values, who look upon their own values as the only ones having virtue. It should not be surprising that people from different class cultures do not cherish some of the aims and mores that these representatives of middle-class society hold to be basic to good behavior. The problem here is to acculturate the pupil to the values and methods of the school. The unpleasant experience of receiving punishment for not having those values is not de-signed to make them appear desirable in the mind of the unacculturated person.

Another kind of alleged insolence which troubles secondary-school teachers should properly be classed as "high-schoolese" of the particular period. The teacher knows the "high-schoolese" of a decade or more earlier than the current period and looks upon modern "high-schoolese," with which he is unfamiliar, as rank insolence.

Then, too, something in the schoolroom situation may provoke insolence. This provocation may or may not be within the control of the teacher. For example, a course of study which is unsuited to a particular individual because that person is unable to derive profit from it might cause tension in itself. Sometimes the teacher, because of his actions, is directly responsible for tensions. The most familiar of such procedures is to discuss a pupil's behavior in the presence of the entire class. The child of low socioeconomic level is especially beset by fears. He enters the schoolroom to find that all the words and acts of the teacher imply that this is a place in which only strange manners and values have worth and that most of the ways of acting and thinking which his family society has inculcated do not fit in with this society.

In addition, discussion of a pupil in class not only creates antagonism on the part of the pupil against the teacher but does actual damage to pupil personality. The normal reaction to repeated experiences of this kind

would be one of withdrawal or the securing of social approval by methods which are not indorsed by the teacher. The latter type of reaction would create new disciplinary problems that were not even present at the beginning of the discussion. The reaction of withdrawal, though creating less manifest trouble for the teacher, would be more injurious to the personality development of the student.

Wholly incidental to the reaction of the pupil whose shortcomings are aired is the effect that the procedure has on his peers. No matter how approving their reactions may seem, they develop an inner antagonism against the teacher if one of their group is singled out for disapproval. Thus there develops a situation in which the class on one side is pitted against the teacher on the other.

USEFUL DEVICES

There is a "law of parsimony" for dealing with disciplinary difficulties. That is, do as little overtly, in both action and speech, as is essential for mastering the situation or solving the problem. If, for example, his mere presence is enough to secure order in a disorderly group, the teacher should do nothing. If he must, in addition, point an admonishing finger in a certain direction, he should do just that much. If the admonishing finger requires the addition of the statement, "John," he should limit the statement to the one word. If, however, he thinks that a long harangue is called for, he should save himself the trouble; for haranguing can do only harm. The

pupils who had engaged in the undesirable action would only be rewarded by being informed that they had succeeded in upsetting the teacher.

When trouble arises, the teacher should single out a specific individual if he can. If not, he should not blame the whole class, as this would be a confession of his weakness. It is not essential that he find the culprit in every case. The teacher who feels secure in his knowledge and mastery need feel no qualms about meeting one incident in which he admittedly is not the master.

The normal parent-child relationship must be respected by speaking only respectfully of the parent to the child. Regardless of the true situation, the normal child resents any implication that the teacher suspects there is an undesirable relationship between child and parent or a lack of ability on the part of the parent. A child feels a personal affront if the parent is referred to as being less than adequate. Even though the child feels no direct loyalty to the parent, to tell a child that his parent did not bring him up correctly, or even to imply such a belief, is to cause resentment and the rupture of rapport between teacher and pupil.

The teacher should avoid magnifying the importance of undesirable actions. It is much better to spend the available time in calling attention to a desirable action to be emulated. In the primary grades, for instance, it is preferable to mention the person performing the desirable action. "I like the way Billy does his work," will

cause John to look up from his mis-
chief to see what Billy is doing. Above
the primary grades, the desirable ac-
tion must be mentioned without at-
taching it to an individual, lest some
social disapproval fall on the individ-
ual whose superiority to his class-
mates is pointed out.

The teacher should also avoid mak-
ing threats; for they tie him down to
specific actions which he may be un-
able, or unwilling, to perform. It is
better to discuss the problem or the
merits of the case than to make a dis-
play of power. A display of this sort
may incite a contest of power, in
which it often may be found that a
teacher's real power to perform falls
short of the threat. Consequently the
teacher's authority will be weakened
thereafter. In a specific case the
teacher may find it essential to inform
a student or parent that the teacher is
trying the final avenue open to him
and that, if this method is unsuccess-
ful, he will be able to to find no other
solution and will, consequently, have
to take some definite action which will
relieve him of the problem. Such a
statement carries no implication that
the school is a penal institution and,
at the same time, does not tie the
teacher down to an act which he may
find he cannot perform, or may prefer
not to engage in, when he is actually
confronted with the necessity for mak-
ing good his promise.

Providing pupils with rationaliza-
tions and defense clichés as substitutes
for good performance should also be
avoided. Telling a pupil that he has
the ability to do the work but that he

is too lazy provides him with such a
rationalization; for it is more accept-
able socially to be lazy than it is to be
stupid. If a pupil who does not do his
school work is described as lazy, he
may spend more time and effort devis-
ing pretexts for not having done the
work than it would take to do the
work. Clearly, in this case, laziness
does not mean an unwillingness to per-
form labor. Perhaps the pupil feels so
inadequate to the assignment that he
chooses to undergo the consequences
of failure in school, or punishment, or
other labor rather than to endure the
frustration born of a direct attack on
the assignment itself. Perhaps the pu-
pil has built up such an antagonism to
the aims of his parent that he is pun-
ishing his parent and deriving satisfac-
tion through school failure. Perhaps
the student has such great need for the
attention of some adult to substitute
for a father or a mother that failure
results in receiving the coveted privi-
lege of the undivided attention of the
teacher. To attack a problem, one
must find out what it is. Calling the
pupil lazy is an evasion of an attack,
and it builds up undesirable attitudes
in the pupil by providing a convenient
rationalization.

Another device which the teacher
should use is interviewing parents for
the purpose of receiving and giving
information and for working out a so-
lution to a problem co-operatively.
Laying down the law to a parent, how-
ever, is not designed to secure his co-
operation nor to elicit from him the
kind of information that will be useful
in studying the pupil.

REFERRAL OF DISCIPLINARY PROBLEMS

There comes a time when a particular behavior problem requires intensive study. The best approach for the classroom teacher is to confer with other persons in the school to secure additional information about the child. That information should then be used to plan a program which is designed to change the course of the child's education in such a manner that the discipline problem will be solved.

Even if the most earnest individual attention is given to each case, a need to refer a case to the principal or to other guidance workers sometimes arises. One useful approach is for the teacher to confer with the guidance worker without letting the pupil know that the conference is taking place. The teacher gives the guidance worker all relevant information. The guidance worker then selects a time which is convenient both for him and for the pupil and calls the pupil in for conference. As a result of the conference, a definite course of action is decided on, and the teacher and the guidance worker confer again to make sure that they are both working toward the same goal. When more immediate action is essential, the teacher should take the pupil directly to the person who is in charge of discipline, inform that person of the difficulty, give the pupil an opportunity to state his view of the situation, and leave.

There is no imaginable situation in the conduct of a class when a statement resembling the following is justified: "You leave this class and don't come back. Go and see the principal. We have no place for you here." This is not a discipline procedure. It is a device for relieving the tension of the teacher; it is an abdication of the job of teaching; it is an evasion of the teacher's duties as one of the officials charged with the enforcement of the compulsory attendance law; it is a denial of the pupil's constitutional right to equal educational opportunity; it is a destruction of the parent status of the teacher, who is employed to stand *in loco parentis* for certain limited purposes. It is all these things, and many more that could be mentioned as the antithesis of education, but it is not a method of discipline. Used by the teacher and recognized as a device for relieving the teacher's tensions, it may have some justification in rare instances, because a teacher must have the opportunity for the release of tensions when they become explosive. Explosions of this kind should be infrequent, however, and each instance should be recognized as an instance of failure.

THE FINAL TEST

It would be well for the teacher to measure all actions with reference to his pupils with this simple criterion: "This is my own child, my own son or daughter. Is this the kind of disciplinary action that I would like to have taken with my own son or daughter under these circumstances?"

TEACHING THE SLOW LEARNER

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THE secondary schools today are faced with the problem of providing adequately for the slow-learning child. Research shows that, in the junior and senior high schools, the 20 per cent of the total school population who are classed as slow learners are, in many cases, required to conform to the curricular pattern which has been established for the normal child (18). No attempt is being made here to discount the efforts of individual teachers to adapt the curriculum to the needs of the child. However, full recognition must be given to the essentiality of overcoming the professional inertia and shortsightedness of many teachers in failing to provide for the individual differences of the slow learner. There is an obvious need for taking the student where he is found and employing the results of the latest research in meeting his individual needs. To the extent that teachers fail to utilize properly the considerable body of research available, they—the teachers—may be considered slow learners.

Among the various reasons advanced for existing conditions are (1) the inability to identify properly the slow learner, (2) the impossibility of homogeneous grouping in all circumstances, (3) the infeasibility of curricular adaptations, which may be traced, in part, to the disinclination of the teacher on the secondary level to disassociate himself from the academic or subject-matter point of view. None of these reasons, offered separately or in combination, may be considered wholly valid in the opinion of authorities.

IDENTIFYING THE SLOW LEARNER

Who is the slow learner?—Recognition of the slow-learning child has been simplified for the teacher as a result of research during the past decade. Studies by Featherstone (6), Baker (2), Ingram (11), Wallin (18), and the Research Division of the National Education Association (9) summarize definite suggestions and procedures for the identification and treatment of this type of child.

According to Featherstone, the slow learner occupies a position between the mentally handicapped and the normal individual (6: 2). This placement is confirmed by Baker, who places the slow learner midway between the normal and the mentally subnormal (2: 244). Wallin (18) and

Ingram (11) are but two of numerous authorities corroborating this placement.

Approximate groupings by intelligence quotients have been recognized in common psychological and educational practice. Terman (16), Ingram (11), Baker (2: 247), and Featherstone (6: 2) are representative of the many writers who have indicated the probable range. Although a range of from fifteen points to twenty points in intelligence quotients is indicated (from 70 or 75 to 89 or 90), it is well to think in terms of a central tendency of approximately 83, as suggested by Baker (2). This median intelligence quotient of 83 does not represent a severe amount of mental retardation; for it closely approximates normal progress. Nevertheless, a six-year-old child, entering Grade I with an intelligence quotient of 83, may be retarded anywhere from two to four years mentally by the time he starts Grade X at the approximate age of fifteen.

Characteristics of the slow learner.— Summaries of the characteristics of the slow learner have been compiled by practically every writer in this field. Such studies as *The Grouping of Pupils* (8: 5), Burt's *The Backward Child* (3), and Hildreth's *Learning the Three R's* (10: 290) have stated these characteristics concisely.

In comparing the slow learner with other pupils, Featherstone (6: 4) points out that slow-learning children are as variable and heterogeneous as average children but that, age for age,

they are a little less well developed, on the average, than normal children. It cannot be reiterated too often that, in such matters as emotional behavior and attentiveness, there is as much "spread" among the slow learners as there is among the normal children. It is important, therefore, that serious attempts be made to keep clearly in mind the differences between the mentally deficient and the slow learner.

It is with respect to intellectual traits that the line of distinction is most clearly drawn between the normal child and the slow learner. Featherstone (6) and a Research Bulletin of the National Education Association (9) clearly state that, in visual and auditory perception, there is little difference between the two groups. It is in the exercise of the reasoning processes that a marked differentiation appears. Reasoning involves recognition or identification of the problem to be solved, formulation of possible solutions or courses of action, and testing of these possible solutions against remembered experience. The employment of the preceding factors in the reasoning process requires clarification, revision, rejection, and selection. The implication of reasoning, or the lack thereof, is a challenge to our educational program for the slow child.

All studies and observations show that mentally deficient children learn more slowly and retain less than normal children do. There is no question on this point. A related question is: Will a child of twelve whose mental

age is six learn as rapidly as an average child of six years?

Woodrow (19) compared normal and feeble-minded children of the same mental age on learning tasks covering a period of thirteen days. His results showed that the two groups were of equal learning ability. Woodrow's experiment showed that, over a short period of time, the learning ability of mentally retarded children was equal to that of normal children of the same mental age. Surveys of the learning ability of subnormal children over a longer period of time, however, show that their rate of learning is slower because their rate of mental growth is slower. A six-year-old child with a six-year mental age (intelligence quotient of 100) may be expected to grow one year mentally in one year's time. A twelve-year-old subnormal child with a six-year mental age (intelligence quotient of 50) may be expected to grow mentally one-half year. (This illustration is offered subject to the theory of the environmentalists in relation to the increase of intelligence.)

If research is summarized, then, the slow-learning child tends to learn by comparatively simple mental processes. He prefers concrete and practical learning to the abstract or general. He is more interested in trying to solve problems than in trying to study the rules which govern the problems. He prefers short units and specific assignments. He insists on quick results and is inclined to lose interest if the results are deferred or are intangible.

Education is not static. The dynamics of professional research clearly label the obvious fallacy of offering as an explanation for existing conditions the inability of the teacher to identify properly the slow learner.

Homogeneous grouping.—It is not the purpose here to debate the issue of segregation or ability grouping. This problem has been discussed many times and is still unsettled in the opinion of many educators (15). Whenever any reference is made to slow learners, the almost invariable reaction is: Are they grouped homogeneously?

The results of research, as reported in the *Encyclopedia of Educational Research* (4), slightly favor ability grouping, as contrasted with heterogeneous grouping in which adaptations of standards, materials, and methods are made. In progressive order, homogeneous grouping most favors the dull, the normal, and, least of all, the bright. Experience demonstrates that ability grouping for the slow learner is justified only in schools in which special curriculums can be, and are, established. In most small school systems, this is uneconomical and impractical although situations which may provide excellent results can be established.

Studies (7, 9) indicate that, at some time or other, the schools in most large cities have attempted to provide for individual differences by ability grouping or by special classes in one form or another. The educators in all large cities believe that ability grouping or curricular adaptations or both should be made. How, then, is it pos-

sible to meet the rationalization of the teacher who complains about the impossibility of homogeneous grouping in given circumstances?

The answer is found in research. Adaptations in curriculums provide for individual differences. Such adaptations may be made when it is not economical or feasible to group slow learners homogeneously. (Even within a homogeneously grouped class, the range in ability may be very great.) Teachers must be prepared to accept the challenge of individual differences and to utilize the latest advances in educational procedure, including all the benefits of a progressive and valid system of tests and measurements.

Closer follow-up of student failures as an incentive to adaptations in the curriculum.—Secondary-school teachers have been much maligned by the accusation of "subject-mindedness." This condition may have as its basis any one of a number of causes or explanations. Lack of proper counseling services, inferior testing and measurement programs, and failure to use available guidance materials have given rise to a condition which may be labeled "professional inertia." The human factor, however, has a positive, as well as a negative, aspect. Teachers, as a whole, have a professional outlook and will endeavor to assist the child in developing to his optimum capacity. It was with this thought in mind that a study was undertaken of closer follow-up of pupil failures in the Portola Junior High School in San Francisco.

THE STUDY

The purpose.—As a result of joint consultation between the administration (principal and vice-principals) and the counseling staff, certain forms and procedures were evolved. A technique for spotlighting pupil failures was created. All students who had received two F's or four D's in either scholarship or citizenship were placed on a confidential list for closer follow-up by the counseling staff and teachers. The purpose of this list is fourfold: (1) it provides for definite reports at stated intervals by subject-matter teachers to home-room teachers, counselors, and parents; (2) it assists the various subject-matter teachers by definitely "spotting" these pupils for them and assures closer co-operation in these cases between counselors and teachers; (3) it focuses the attention of subject-matter teachers on the selected pupils because the subject-matter teachers must present a progress report at stated intervals; and (4) it affords the opportunity of statistically appraising the percentages of pupil failures in terms of limited mental capacities and marks.

Three forms.—Three forms worthy of special mention were the direct results of this follow-up program: the progress report card, the potential failure report, and a postal-card form to be sent to parents.

The progress report was created as the result of joint action of the administration and the counselors. It was particularly essential that the coun-

selors participate in the planning if they were to use this form whole-heartedly. As seen in Figure 1, the progress report card provides space for the marks that were given during the previous report-card period and for

productive of results was a double, government postal card. On one side was printed a message to the parents requesting their attendance at school, and the return postal provided for a response from the parent (Figure 2).

PORTOLA JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

Progress Report

Name.. Grade.................. Room....................

SUBJECTS	Report Card Grades		Period Ending		Period Ending		Period Ending		Teacher	Room
	Scholarship	Citizenship	Scholarship	Citizenship	Scholarship	Citizenship	Scholarship	Citizenship		
English										
Social Studies										
Health										
Home Room										

FIG. 1.—Progress report card

three progress reports at stated intervals.

The potential failure report was to be completed by the subject-matter teacher and transmitted to the counselor in time to allow for counseling the child and to afford the student ample opportunity to overcome the potential failure.

Another form that was particularly

The results of this experiment were a surprise. The counseling department furnished a complete list of intelligence quotients to the teachers for all the pupils on the confidential list of failures. Lists were prepared for the first and second report-card periods of the fall and spring semesters.

Study revealed that, in a junior high school with an enrolment of

over 1,200, there were 138 students placed on the list at the end of the first report-card period of the fall term. Although 95 students were listed at the conclusion of the second

arship repeaters by intelligence quotients for two semesters is given in Table 1. Of the thirty-nine pupils cited on the list of repeaters during the spring term, only ten were on the list

Dear............................ Date..............
..............................has been having diffi-culty adjusting to the school situation. As your child's counselor, I feel that a conference with one of the parents is essential if the requirements for promotion are to be met.

May I ask that you call at school within two days after receiving this card. The most desirable time is............................. If you should come at any other time, you may be delayed considerably while another teacher is found to take my class.

Very truly yours,

Counselor

Re:...............................

H.R...............................

(Counselor)

I will call at Portola Junior High

School for a conference at

(time)   (day)

Parent's Signature

FIG. 2.—Wording of postal-card form sent to parents

TABLE 1

INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENTS OF REPEATING FAILURES IN SCHOLARSHIP

TERM	NUMBER OF CASES	INTELLIGENCE QUOTIENT			
		Range	Third Quartile	Median	First Quartile
Fall.......	38	49–136	102	85	72
Spring.....	39	49–116	105	86	72

report-card period, only 46 of these children were repeaters from the first confidential list. This figure indicates that approximately 67 per cent of the students who were on the first list were not found on the second list. Of these 46 repeaters, 38 were cited for having received two F's or four D's in scholarship. The distribution of schol-

of repeaters from the preceding fall term.

The appointment of a special faculty committee by the principal was the direct outgrowth of this investigation. This committee met to discuss the implications of the study in relation to the slow-learning, as well as the mentally retarded, pupil. The recom-

mendations of the committee regarding this problem were reported to the faculty at a general meeting at which the principal provided ample opportunity for group discussion.

INFERENCES

Although conclusions should not be drawn from so limited a study, certain inferences may be made. The factor of closer follow-up of pupil failure has immediate and direct results. The limited mental capacity of the pupils on the confidential lists was the subject of committee discussion by the teachers. Recommendations concerning adaptations of curriculum to the slow-learning child were made and, in many cases, put into effect. The problem of marking in relation to this type of child was discussed in committee and also in the general teachers' meeting with encouraging results.

The point has been established that, with closer follow-up by counselors, teachers, and parents, the percentage of repeaters can be decreased substantially. The co-operation of the parents with the counseling staff and teachers was particularly worthy of special notice. The parents appreciated the efforts that the school was making in behalf of their children.

Who is the slow learner: pupil or teacher?—As a result of research, certain techniques are available for differentiating the slow learner from the normal child. In addition, the adaptation of content, methods, and materials to the child—the developmental approach to education—stresses the doctrine of individual difference to such an extent that the teacher who is aware of educational research in the past decade or more is unable to consider his class as a homogeneous unit.

The answer to the plea for specially trained teachers and special curriculums for the slow learner may be met by the suggestion that teachers employ the tools at their disposal to maximum efficiency before requesting supplementary assistance, which, at best, will utilize only the present practices already available to the teacher.

The fundamental basis for all instruction is the determination of the existing status of the student—mental, physical, emotional, and academic. Using this information as a take-off point, one cannot but be aware of the inevitability of providing for individual differences. Since the slow learner progresses at roughly five-sixths the normal rate, the teacher should require an evaluation of only the student's present status.

Students will learn if given materials at their level of ability, along with proper guidance in utilization of the materials. The slow-learning pupil differs from the normal student, not so much in his desire to learn, but in his capacity for, and rate of, learning. Materials for teaching and guidance in the techniques of instruction are available at every hand. Is the problem that of "professional inertia" on the part of the teacher? Is the teacher the slow learner in terms of capacity to learn? The absurdity of the question is manifest; the professional nature of teachers as a group is beyond question.

The answer is not special teachers and curriculums for the slow learner but rather a reappraisal by teachers, as a whole, of the need for taking the student where he is found and for employing the results of the latest research in meeting his individual needs.

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GROUP ACTION IN PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

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THE UNIFIED ARTS COURSE

IN GRADES VII, VIII, and IX at University High School at the University of Minnesota, all students are enrolled in a unified arts course. Each year the boys and girls alternate among the art, music, industrial-arts, and home-economics departments to study a unified program. During the seventh year this course includes problems of personal development; during the eighth year, those of social development; and during the ninth year, problems concerned with living in the home, at school, and at work. The four teachers of these courses work together closely in an effort to produce co-ordinated work at each grade level and to provide continuity in the total three-year program.

In courses of this type it is difficult for the instructor to have many definite ideas of how the work should be conducted and of exactly what should be included. Only through careful teacher-pupil planning can there be developed a really worth-while course which will actually meet the needs of students. What one group of students needs in social development may not be in the least what another group

needs. Even if, through a careful survey, the teacher knew the fundamental needs of the class, it still would be necessary to discover a means by which the material might be presented in the most interesting fashion. That plan of work must come from the group, not from the teacher; for only through such a technique can full co-operation be attained.

On the first day that the new section of eighth-grade students of the unified arts course—nineteen in all—came to the home-economics department, there was curiosity concerning what would be included during the following nine weeks. A broad subject, "Developing Socially," had been established to be studied during this time, but there were many possible approaches. Which was the best?

EXPERIMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

A discussion of social development and of how home economics could make a contribution was in progress, when a lively boy ventured, "My sister is studying experimental psychology in the university, and they take all kinds of tests about themselves. Why can't we study psychol-

ogy?" The words were hardly out of his mouth before the entire class began begging to "study psychology."

Students and teacher agreed to see whether a unit of this kind could be set up. Time was spent, therefore, in a search of psychology books and in a conference with the counselor, in an effort to evolve a unit on social development which would have enough of the experimental quality to satisfy the students. It was evident that the students' ideas of a course in psychology were still indefinite and that, if they started making specific suggestions at this point without the benefit of outside help, the original enthusiasm might wane. From the classroom discussions it appeared that, when the students spoke of "psychology," they were actually talking about the taking of personality tests. However, the teacher realized that these tests would be of value only if they could be turned into teaching devices.

The tentative unit that was finally developed by the teacher and the students used a wide enough variety of tests to allow the students to obtain fair pictures of themselves and to prove effective for leading into discussions and activities—lively discussions and activities for lively eighth-graders. The students asked that the teacher plan a few "surprise observations, just like they do in psychology." Thus, part of the unit remained unknown until the time when it was used.

Because the students showed a high degree of interest in the coming unit,

it was realized that, with a minimum of effort, the boys and girls could learn a great deal of their own accord, aside from formal classroom instruction. Consequently, full use was made of the facilities within the room. A large bulletin board was rearranged every few days with pictures, articles, and drawings. A table below the bulletin board was kept supplied with books, booklets, magazines, and newspaper articles on personality development. These materials could be checked out at any time, and this area of the room soon became a gathering place, not only for the students in this particular class, but for other boys and girls. Slogans, printed in large letters and displayed on a standing frame, were placed in the room each day. Representative of these slogans were:

Don't try to be like any other person. Your magnetism comes from you—because you're you.

Have you done anything today that would make people like you better?

Students are always anxious to have some idea of how popular they are. Popularity, of course, is difficult to measure, and it might not always be best for a student to know the results of a test of this factor. However, as a partial suggestion of popularity and as an introduction to the unit, a sociometric drawing was made. In the explanation of the diagram, the students were warned that this drawing included only the students in this particular group and, therefore, was not necessarily a measure of an individ-

ual's popularity in another social group.

Each student listed his or her best friends within the class and later was given a number which was known only to the teacher and to himself. Each number was placed in a circle, with outgoing and incoming arrows indicating friendships. This drawing was shown and discussed in class, although no individual knew his own place on the drawing until he came for a private conference. The group discussion led to consideration of the traits that make a person popular. A long list of desirable characteristics was soon made, and, after combining and rewording, a fairly complete list of twelve items emerged. The students then developed these items into a rating device by describing two levels of attainment for each item. A score of five points was allotted for each item.

Every pupil drew for a partner and then rated himself and his partner. A rating was again made at the end of the unit in an attempt to determine improvement. Each student, in private conference, learned how his partner had rated him in comparison with his own rating.

The fact had been mentioned during discussion that people often are so conscious of themselves that they fail to observe other people. Consequently they themselves are not so interesting as they could be. Two "surprise observations" were planned. For the first surprise, two strangers came into the room, talked to the teacher for two minutes, and left. For the second, another teacher was present at the beginning of the class and presumably took charge. Soon the regular teacher appeared, wearing an odd costume of unmated shoes and gloves, a white uniform, a jacket turned wrong side out, and a hat on backwards. She screamed, "A telegram for you," to which the visiting teacher replied, "Go away." The regular teacher then left the room. After each observation, the students were asked to record everything they had seen. These observations were then checked for number and accuracy, and the results were given to each student and a summary to the entire class. The importance of observing and noticing people and things became the point of discussion.

TESTS AND CHECK LISTS

High on the list of improvements that students wished to make was grooming. A check list devised by Newton[1] was used in order that the scores could be compared with those set up by an outside authority. The list made a basis for discussion and for projects on improving personal appearance.

It was decided that, to be popular, one needed to be versatile. Therefore, a versatility test by Newton[2] was given. Several days were then devoted to learning simple games and to discussing the opportunities that are offered by Minneapolis and St. Paul for acquiring other more difficult skills.

[1] Roy Newton, *How To Improve Your Personality*, pp. 136–54. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1942.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 91.

An introversion-extroversion test[3] initiated a discussion of how to act and was followed by a test on Habits That Handicap and Attitudes That Antagonize.[4]

A surprise test on persistence was given. When the students were seated, they were handed a simple crossword puzzle and were told how to solve a puzzle of this kind. With no explanation of the purpose, they were told to work the puzzle. Soon a stack of different puzzles was placed on a table, and the pupils were told that, if they desired to do so, they might turn in the puzzles they were working on and select new ones. At the end of the period a careful check was made of those students who had asked to keep the puzzle. On the following day a short discussion soon led to a discovery of the meaning of the previous day's activities and of their importance.

Thus, during the unit a wide variety of tests was used. It should be stressed, however, that the tests were not an end within themselves; they were used to provide a motivating factor toward discussion and improvement. No person, at any age, appreciates spending week after week in "discussing" how to improve himself, particularly if he is uncertain about what should be improved. The tests and observations also lent an air of excitement, and the "practice days," which often followed, were thoroughly enjoyed. Among the most popular of the activities were the following: telephone conversations between boys

[3] *Ibid.*, p. 103.   [4] *Ibid.*, pp. 88–89.

and girls, demonstrating how to ask for, and how to accept or to refuse, dates; learning games for parties; practicing simple dance steps; making introductions; and illustrating how boys and girls walk on the street, enter theaters, and perform other courtesies.

All the information from the tests was carefully recorded on file sheets and kept by the teacher. The students took full advantage of the opportunity to see their own records and to talk to the teacher about the results. Since many ratings were made by both the individual and the secret partner, there was often need to discover the cause of differences in scores. For weeks after the unit was completed and the boys and girls had gone to the next section of the unified arts course, they returned to discuss the test results.

During the entire period, close contact was maintained with the school counselor to insure that desirable techniques were being employed. Through his help, pertinent tests were located, and a proper understanding was gained of the materials that were used. On occasion, the counselor took part in the regular class period by answering questions and interpreting test results. In order that he might better understand and help the students, all the results of the tests and projects of the class were made available to him.

The popularity of this kind of work was emphasized even more by the fact that succeeding groups of students

asked for units of a similar type. With one group, a plan was developed in which the testing period was somewhat shortened and the class put into practice some of the things that they had learned about social development. This class decided that they would like to work in groups of six and build model living-rooms. Each group worked out a plan which would enable the six students to agree on what was to be done and on how it should be done.

During this period of activity, many ideas and concepts which had previously been discussed were re-emphasized, and some new ones emerged. Points which had had little meaning became clear. Among these ideas were: the idleness of a person is as much the fault of the group as of the person; every person is able to do something to help the group; if all persons belonging to the group meet one another part way, the work of the group will progress much more rapidly than if everyone tries to have his own way.

IMPLICATIONS

This article has described how a unit in social adjustment was taught to eighth-grade students. It is not recommended that the unit be copied by other teachers; for in work of this kind the ideas must come from the students. Rather it is suggested that teachers look over their work in an attempt to discover whether they are meeting as many of the needs of their students as possible and that they then contact the school counselor, if one is available, and work with him in developing new and better techniques of helping individual students.

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THE number of references on the organization of secondary education has been greatly reduced during the past year, with several of the usual topics receiving limited attention. The areas in which the decrease of items is most noticeable are rural, vocational, and adult education.

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Presents a brief appraisal of the 6–4–4 plan, with special reference to the upper level of the system.

526. HUGHES, JAMES S. "Veterans Rate Programs of California Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (April, 1948), 450–56.

Reports a study made to evaluate attempts by California junior colleges to adapt their educational programs to veterans' needs.

527. MARTORANA, S. V. "Problems in Adult Education in the Junior College," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (November, 1947), 115–23.

Summarizes the returns from 377 institutions which were asked to list and rate their problems in adult education.

528. PROCTOR, MILTON D. "The Role of the Private Junior College," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXII (March, 1948), 133–42.

Discusses junior-college functions and standards and the unique contribution that the private college may make.

529. UNRUH, ADOLPH. "Problems Confronting the Junior Colleges," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (December, 1947), 191–95.

    Presents a report of a research study of the most pressing problems facing junior colleges.

ARTICULATION

530. CARROTHERS, GEORGE E. "Should a High School Principal Be Expected To Recommend Students for College Admission?" *North Central Association Quarterly*, XXII (January, 1948), 291–93.

    Presents six reasons for a negative answer to the question proposed in the article's title.

531. WHEAT, LEONARD B. "Curriculum Articulation for Secondary and Higher Education," *School Review*, LVI (March, 1948), 146–55.

    Examines the problem of curriculum articulation between secondary schools and colleges. Proposes means for achieving articulation and administrative organization adjustments.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION

532. MILLER, C. M. "Yesterday, Today, and Tomorrow in Vocational Education," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXXVII (April, 1948), 137–42.

    Argues for treating vocational education as a special area and for keeping it separate from other areas. Discusses the various administrative controls affecting vocational education.

EDUCATION FOR VETERANS

533. AUCOTT, IREDELL. "High School English for Veterans," *Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary-School Principals*, XXXI (November, 1947), 67–71.

    Describes the organization of the course in English offered veterans in the Benjamin Franklin High School, Philadelphia.

534. WILLIAMS, CHARLES H. "The Veteran Prepares for Admission to College," *Educational Outlook*, XXII (November, 1947), 4–11.

    Describes the educational program for veterans in the Benjamin Franklin High School, Philadelphia.

ADULT EDUCATION

535. ADERHOLD, O. C., and WILLIAMS, JOE A. "Use of the School Plant by the Adults of the Community," *School Executive*, LXVII (June, 1948), 49–50.

    Lists many ways in which a school plant might serve the adult community on a twelve-month basis.

SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

536. BOTTRELL, HAROLD R. "Opportunities for Community Service," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (September, 1947), 12–19.

    The first in a series of articles presenting findings and recommendations from an investigation of community service in junior colleges. Indicates the values of participation and presents a list of opportunities now in use.

537. BOTTRELL, HAROLD R. "Patterns of Organization in Community Service," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (October, 1947), 57–63.

    Describes various patterns, indicates the basic elements in an effective pattern, and states some of the major implications for college policy and college-community relations.

538. BOTTRELL, HAROLD R. "Techniques in Community Service," *Junior College Journal*, XVIII (November, 1947), 128–34.

    Deals with techniques in community service, offering specific and concrete suggestions that may be utilized in developing and improving student participation in the community.

539. CAMPBELL, CLYDE M. "The Secondary School as a Community School," *School Executive*, LXVII (February, 1948), 60–61.

Suggests future trends in making the secondary school a community school.

540. FOWLER, BURTON P. "Six High Schools Work together in the Community," *School Management*, XVII (October, 1947), 4–6.

Tells how community activities develop the students' sense of social responsibility. Describes such activities in Germantown, Philadelphia.

541. JACK, HAROLD K., and KIBLER, LESTER E. "Schools Have a Stake in Community Recreation," *Virginia Journal of Education*, XLI (March, 1948), 295, 311.

A challenge to school administrators to provide recreational facilities for the whole community.

542. KEESECKER, WARD W. "State Laws Permitting Wider Use of School Property," *School Life*, XXX (March, 1948), 3–7, 24.

Discusses legal developments in the use of public-school facilities for other than school purposes and presents some examples of state statutes on the subject.

543. RICE, THEODORE D. "A United School-Community Program," *School Executive*, LXVII (January, 1948), 53–55.

Outlines the procedures for developing a school-community program.

544. "Secondary School Reorganization in Atlanta," *School Life*, XXX (December, 1947), 17–18.

A report of Atlanta's efforts to develop community high schools.

EDUCATIONAL WRITINGS

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

BEN D. WOOD and RALPH HAEFNER, *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth.* New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1948. Pp. viii+536.

The increased interest of American educators in the field of guidance is reflected in the number of excellent publications appearing in that field. *Measuring and Guiding Individual Growth* by Wood and Haefner is a recent volume which differs, in some respects, from the usual guidance publication. In the first place, although most of the material in the book is applicable to the high-school level, there are several excellent chapters written especially for teachers in the elementary school. Then, too, while most guidance publications are intended for the school's guidance specialist, this volume is planned for the use of the classroom teacher. A third difference is that the major portion of the book is devoted to a discussion of individual differences and the role of guidance in education.

The discussion on individual differences in students and on the meaning which the concept of differences should have for education is excellent. Indeed, the philosophy that individual differences are at the heart of the guidance program pervades the writing. Not only is this idea stated as a generalization, but many cases are cited at all levels of education, from kindergarten through high school, to prove this point. The children mentioned as examples are typical pupils who are encountered by every teacher every day. The authors assert that the school should know its students' general characteristics and their specific abilities and traits.

True education should develop "methods for helping him [each individual] achieve his own uniqueness" (p. 29).

The publication contains three major sections. Part I, the section on individual differences, explains how teachers have helped individual students. Part II considers the place of measurement in individualized education. This section discusses available tests and correct application of test findings for individual counseling purposes. The final section, Part III, is devoted to a discussion of the need for a guidance program in schools and outlines an effective guidance program which would use the present teaching personnel.

Although Part I stresses that not all information can be gathered by standardized tests and that individual personality and interest differences have to be considered in a guidance program, few suggestions are given in concrete form for implementing such ideas. Instead, most of Part II deals with the usual type of academic tests of knowledge and mental ability. Personal-adjustment problems seem of little interest to the authors, and the counselor is assumed to be concerned mostly with helping the students choose suitable vocations, selecting high-school courses adapted to their needs, and assisting them in their academic successes.

Other defects are the usual oversimplification and generalization which result when a publication of this kind compresses the entire discussion of tests into one hundred pages. While typical tests are listed and described and the reader is told where they

may be obtained, they are not adequately evaluated as guidance instruments. Examples are the use of art tests to predict art success or group intelligence tests to predict academic success.

In spite of these shortcomings, the average classroom teacher should find this book a useful reference. Its authors have written in a manner which will interest many teachers who would not be attracted to the usual volume on guidance. The language is simple and direct, and the style is informal. Presenting many cases of real children with real names serves both to increase the reader's interest in the book and to clarify the ideas and generalizations of the authors.

Many teachers know little about the field of testing or of record-keeping. The chapter entitled "What Do Test Results Mean?" contains a practical explanation of the treatment of test scores and includes many actual test scores as examples. Teachers who have never really understood test terminology, simple statistical terms, or the treatment of test results should find this chapter of great assistance.

Measuring and Guiding Growth is a useful publication for the average classroom teacher and student teacher. It is less useful for the specialist in the field of guidance.

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HENRY I. CHRIST, *Winning Words*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1948. Pp. xii+348.

Teachers, generally, recognize the value of making words part of the student's daily life and not just an accumulation of self-contained units that are called forth only in response to specific stimuli. Despite their efforts, teachers too often find that students are unable to transfer the vocabulary of the English class to other school subjects and to daily living. In addition, it is apparent that many students are failing to obtain complete understanding from their reading because they are unaware of, and fail to appreciate,

the various shades of meaning a word may have. As an aid in the attack on these and related problems, Henry I. Christ, in *Winning Words*, presents an inclusive, thorough, and effective work on building and using a vocabulary.

In Part I, emphasis is placed on acquiring a vocabulary which includes sparkling, colorful, and varied words. The precise meaning of each word is also given. The first chapter, which is comprised of a discussion of the value of a vocabulary, the vocabulary notebook, and an analysis of the student's stock of words, is concluded with a diagnostic test designed to discover the weaknesses of the student that are to be corrected by the study of the remaining chapters of Part I. These subsequent chapters introduce many words from the fields of science, music, art, history, literature, and other areas of living by use of dictionary games; extremely clever and apt anecdotes; matching, multiple-choice, and completion questions; and interesting and humorous cartoons which have great appeal to young people. The rich and varied language heritage which we possess is reviewed through studying the history of our words. The contributions which various nationalities have made to our vocabulary are presented in meaningful comparisons and stimulating word exercises, so that the student will find enjoyment in being a "word detective." The prefixes, roots, and suffixes of foreign origin which are found in the English language are studied, not only to give the student a richer appreciation of his language, but also to enable him to master new words more rapidly with these added language tools. The concept of the evolution of words teaches the student that words are not lifeless, but living symbols and that, like all living things, they change with age. A multiple-choice, vocabulary mastery test concludes Part I.

Part II is devoted to the consideration of the importance of using the appropriate word. This point is made by an interesting and entertaining description of the effect

that words have on all life's activities. In his presentation in this section, the author discusses not only the actual meanings of words but also the symbolic connotations which they may have. The manipulation of words in politics, advertising, and newspapers, along with the influence of tone, gesture, and idiomatic expressions, is pictured in an effective and forceful manner. The chapter on the metaphor captures a difficult concept and explains it in a variety of ways, thus enabling the student to extract the principle and to apply it in other situations. By means of this study, which takes into consideration the deeper meanings of words, the author attempts to lead the student to a more discriminating and definitive choice and use of words.

Because the book is adjusted to several maturity levels, it is adaptable to all high-school grades and can easily be arranged to fit the needs and interests of any particular class.

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Guidance Handbook for Secondary Schools.
Prepared by Division of Research and Guidance with the assistance of Division of Trade and Industrial Education, Division of Secondary Education, Division of Health and Physical Education, Division of Audio-visual Education, Division of Attendance and Child Welfare of the Office of Los Angeles County Superintendent of Schools. Los Angeles, California: California Test Bureau, 1948. Pp. xxii + 244. $3.00.

The volume *Guidance Handbook for Secondary Schools* is of interest to all officers and teachers in secondary schools who have any specific responsibilities pertaining to student counseling. It is also a stimulating example of the results of group enterprise when competent members of the staff at-

tack a school problem of interest to the school population as a whole. The preparation of a guidance handbook that would improve counseling procedures in all secondary schools in the Los Angeles County school system was undertaken in response to the requests of teachers and counselors for the materials and information they needed in their efforts to aid students in the solution of personal and educational problems. The project was carried on under the sponsorship of the Division of Research and Guidance in the office of the county superintendent of schools with the assistance of various other divisions of the superintendent's office.

An effective orientation for the counseling staff of a county school system is presented in an early discussion of students' characteristics giving rise to problems on which the students are likely to need intelligent and sympathetic guidance. This discussion is followed by a statement of the essential features of an effective guidance program, including an explanation of appropriate methods of evaluating the guidance activities of the staff.

The more specifically directive chapters of the handbook consist in detailed descriptions of techniques to be used in connection with various aspects of guidance services. These techniques include testing, interviewing, observation and case-study procedures, and the related record-keeping activities. Emphasis is placed on the uses to be made of guidance data by teachers and counselors. One chapter is devoted to administrative uses of guidance data in connection with such functions as the improvement of the curriculum and the promotion and special placement of pupils. The book includes valuable teacher aids in the form of selected references, test inventories and scales for use at different grade levels, and charts showing ways of organizing a guidance program.

Although prepared to meet the needs of the teaching staff and students of the secondary schools of a particular school system,

this handbook can be used to good effect in many other localities, either to serve the needs of an individual teacher or counselor or with the view of improving guidance pro-cedures throughout the city or county school system.

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CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY, AND PRACTICE

MAYS, ARTHUR B. *Principles and Practices of Vocational Education.* New York 18: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1948. Pp. viii+304. $3.50.

The Metric System of Weights and Measures. Twentieth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. Compiled by the Committee on the Metric System, J. T. JOHNSON, Chairman. New York 27: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1948. Pp. xiv+304. $3.00.

BOOKS FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

BOYKIN, ELEANOR. *This Way, Please: A Book of Manners.* New York 11: Macmillan Co., 1948 (revised). Pp. x+350. $2.40.

SCOTT, HARRY FLETCHER; HORN, ANNABEL; and GUMMERE, JOHN FLAGG. *Using Latin,* Book I. Language, Literature, and Life. Chicago 11: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1948. Pp. 448. $2.40.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

Annual Report of the Social Science Research Council, 1946-1947. New York 17: Social Science Research Council (230 Park Avenue), 1948. Pp. 92.

AVID OF INDIANA. *Handbook for the Audio-visual Program.* Bloomington, Indiana: Audio-visual Center, Indiana University, in Co-operation with Indiana State Department of Education, 1948. Pp. iv+42. $1.00.

"Characteristics of Good School Districts: Proceedings of a Conference on School District Organization." Edited by RUSSEL T. GREGG. Madison 6, Wisconsin: School of Education, University of Wisconsin, 1948. Pp. 46 (mimeographed). $1.00.

The Curriculum: Learning and Teaching. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XVIII, No. 3. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1948. Pp. 217-92. $1.00.

DICKEY, FRANK GRAVES. *Developing Supervision in Kentucky.* Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XX, No. 3. Lexington 29, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1948. Pp. 96. $0.50.

A Guide to Child-Labor Provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act (The Federal Wage and Hour Law). Child-Labor Bulletin No. 101. Washington 25: Wage and Hour Public Contracts Division, United States Department of Labor, 1948. Pp. 16.

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"In Your Hands, Your Future: Have You Thought of Junior College Teaching?" Washington 6: American Association of Junior Colleges, 1948. Pp. 8 (unnumbered). $0.10.

LOVEJOY, CLARENCE E. *Lovejoy's Complete Guide to American Colleges and Universities.* New York: Simon & Schuster, Inc., 1948. Pp. 158. $1.49.

MOSELY, PHILIP E. *Face to Face with Russia.* Headline Series, No. 70. New York 16:

Foreign Policy Association, 1948. Pp. 64. $0.35.

1948 Achievement Testing Program in Independent Schools and Supplementary Studies. Educational Records Bulletin No. 50. New York 19: Educational Records Bureau, 1948. Pp. xiv+86.

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Our Air Age—A General High School Course on Aviation: Unit III, *Navigation and Meteorology for Air World Geography,* pp. vi+34; Unit IV, *Vocational Problems and Aviation,* pp. iv+28; Unit V, *National and International Aspects of Aviation,* pp. vi+32. Prepared by the Staff of the Bureau of Aviation Education. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1948.

OVERSTREET, BONARO W. *The Responsibility Is Ours: The Individual and Our Human Relationships.* Prepared by the American Education Fellowship, under the direction of THEODORE BRAMELD. New York 10: Anti-Defamation League of B'Nai B'rith, 1948. Pp. 36. $0.20.

PATON, JAMES M. "Examinations in English." An Abstract of a Thesis Submitted in Conformity with the Requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Pedagogy in the University of Toronto. Macdonald College, Quebec: James M. Paton (P.O. Box 303, Macdonald College), 1948. Pp. 26.

Public Education in Harlan County, Kentucky: A Survey Report. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XX, No. 2. Lexington 29, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1947. Pp. 210. $0.50.

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An Analysis of Various Factors Associated with the Selection of Teaching as a Vocation. Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XXIV, No. 3. Bloomington, Indiana: Division of Research and Field Services, Indiana University, 1948. Pp. 60. $0.50.

School Plant and Equipment. Review of Educational Research, Vol. XVIII, No. 1. Washington 6: American Educational Research Association, 1948. Pp. 72. $1.00.

Scientists Look at Resources: 1st Report from Gatlinburg Conference III. Bulletin of the Bureau of School Service, Vol. XX, No. 4. Lexington 29, Kentucky: College of Education, University of Kentucky, 1948. Pp. 160. $0.50.

SHAW, REGINALD C. *The Proficient Cyclist: Roadmanship for Young Riders,* pp. 24; *The Cycling Proficiency Test.* London: Royal Society for the Prevention of Accidents.

Statutory Bases of State Foundation Programs for Schools. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XXVI, No. 2. Washington 6: Research Division of the National Education Association, 1948. Pp. 43–100. $0.25.

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"Class Size: A Selected List of References by Year (from 1920 to 1948)." Prepared by ELLSWORTH TOMPKINS. Pp. 8.
Division of Secondary Education and Division of Vocational Education—*Life Adjustment Education for Every Youth.* Pp. viii+122.

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